

THE PERSONALITY TYPES
OF MANDATED CHILD-ABUSING PARENTS

By

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This work is dedicated in loving memory of my wonderful father and mother. Honorable Gus J. Dekle who served his constituency faithfully as a member of the Florida House of Representatives was the best daddy a child could ever have. My mother Lucile Culpepper Dekle, the first woman to serve as a County Judge in the State of Florida, was my role model, teacher, counselor, cheerleader and friend. She had a very special way of making everything okay. They encouraged me to continue my education so that if everything did not "turn out like you want it to, then you will have something to fall back on." They had faith in me and provided a safe, nurturing place with lots of freedom in which to grow and thrive.

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This study compared the Myers-Briggs personality types and temperaments of two groups of parents. The first group was comprised of 154 parents who had abused their children and who were mandated by the court or by HRS to attend parent education classes at the Parent Education Center in Orange or Seminole county. The second group consisted of 168 parents who voluntarily attended parent education classes at the same center.

The two groups completed the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Self-Scoring Form G, and their respective responses were compared across the 16 MBTI personality types, on each of the four MBTI indices, and among the four Kiersey temperaments. Further comparisons of the groups by gender examined the distribution of subjects among the 16

MBTI personality types and on each of the four indices. Demographic data collected on the two groups included parent age, marital status, number of children, educational level, income level, and ethnic background.

Subjects in the two groups were similar in their distribution among the 16 MBTI personality types but evidence of difference was noted when comparisons were made by gender on each of the four indices. Male perpetrators scored significantly higher than the comparison group. The two groups demonstrated a difference in their preferences in the four temperaments with the perpetrator group scoring significantly higher on the SJ and SP scales.

Demographic information provided evidence that the groups were not significantly different in age. More of the perpetrator group were single parents and averaged \$10,000 a year or less income. Educational levels in perpetrator group averaged 11.9 years of school while the comparison group had attended at least one year of college. The groups were similar in family size and ethnic background.

Recommendations included further study of the temperaments of perpetrators with documentation of their preferences on the E/I and S/N indices of the MBTI. Comparison to similar groups of parents not deemed abusive and/or to norms set by the developers to the MBTI was also recommended.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The focus on abusive parental practices has heightened since the 1960s when Dr. Henry Kempe characterized the results of nonaccidental injury to children as the battered child syndrome (Kempe, Silverman, Steele, Droegemueller, & Silver, 1962). The work begun by Kempe and his colleagues in identifying children victimized by their caregivers has led to a revolution in attitudes toward children and a scrutiny of acceptable parental practices. Subsequent research has shown that parental abuse of children occurs in almost every community in the United States and is found among people of every race and socioeconomic class (Farley, 1990; Heap, 1991; Milner & Wimberley, 1980; Roberts, 1988; Steele & Pollock, 1968).

According to data supplied by the Florida Center for Children and Youth (FCCY, 1992), the younger children are, the more vulnerable they are to parental abuse and neglect. For example, according to the FCCY, 89% of the victims of child maltreatment who died in 1990 were five years old or younger. Younger children are more susceptible to physical abuse than older children and teens (FCCY, 1992).

Even though public attitudes toward children have begun to incorporate a better understanding of children's developmental needs, some parents continue to consider their children as chattel. They either do not know or are unwilling to try more effective ways of rearing their offspring (Ferleger, Glenwick, Gaines, & Green, 1988). Factors that influence parental behaviors, perceptions and attitudes toward children include personality, temperament, and personal experience.

Personality types or personal characteristics of these parents could be identified, measured, and statistically compared to other parents to determine significant differences. If certain types or temperaments are more prevalent among perpetrators, then prevention and treatment approaches could possibly be tailored to more effectively meet their needs. These parents could then be offered prepared information about victimization and then taught effective parenting practices which would supplant abusive behavior and facilitate nurturance (Daro, 1988). Lawrence (1991) states that personality type is fundamental in developing approaches to learning and when materials/curricula are adapted to student's/learner's style, learning is significantly enhanced. Other researchers have documented that both counseling and teaching are more effective when tailored according to the

personality type/temperament of the learner (Provost, 1987; Quenk, 1985).

Increasing evidence indicates that early identification of potential perpetrators of abuse and neglect is necessary in order to minimize or eliminate nonaccidental harm to children (Daro, 1988). The sooner an abusive parent is identified, receives help, and learns more effective ways of interacting with his/her children, the less harm is done. Early intervention also decreases negative effects of the maltreatment and increases the possibility that damage can be reversed (Holden, Willis, & Foltz, 1989).

Concern for the welfare of children has prompted the development of innovative parenting programs, such as the Healthy Start Program implemented by the Hawaii Family Stress Center (HFSC), that encourage parents to regard their children as people with special needs and not as little adults who must please their parents or suffer the consequences (HFSC, 1991). Concern for the children has also focused attention on perpetrators and encouraged the development of strategies to facilitate identification of potential abusers.

To date, studies of the dynamics of abuse and of the people who perpetrate the maltreatment reveal that parents or other family members are responsible for the majority of injuries and emotional damage done to children. Most perpetrators are known by and have regular contact with the

abused child (Crittenden, 1985). Therefore, this study focuses on parents who are perpetrators through comparisons of abusive parents mandated to parent education classes with similar samples of parents who voluntarily attend classes at the same center. Differences in personality types and temperaments were investigated.

When discussing attributes and attitudes of abusive/neglectful parents, one must be careful to avoid negative stereotyping or labeling which will interfere with objective reporting. Smith (1984) outlined some of the difficulties in generalizing results of studies of child abusers. She concluded that even though an enormous amount of energy and time had been expended designing and implementing studies to describe and document a personality type/characteristic of child abusers, none so far had met the requirement of being effective as well as simple and inexpensive to administer. She also stated that of all the instruments utilized in her studies, none was effective in identifying a single category of abusive parents. Difficulties were related to the subjective nature of collecting data and interpreting results. Attempts to identify at risk parents have increased as more cases of abuse are brought to public awareness.

In recent years more people have become aware of the signs and symptoms of child maltreatment and are supporting the development of primary prevention programs which help to

identify the dynamics of abuse and the people who are at risk for being perpetrators. Subsequently, programs which educate children, parents, and the general public about child abuse and its consequences are being developed and are being distributed through local schools, parent groups, and child welfare agencies (Daro, 1988; Holden, Willis, & Foltz, 1989).

Still needed, however, are effective ways to identify and understand the nature of potential abusers in order to maximize prevention efforts and curtail the effects of child maltreatment (HFSC, 1991; Kelley, Grace, & Elliott, 1990). Examining personal types/characteristics of known abusers by utilizing a standardized, reliable instrument could provide valuable information about this population. Such information could be utilized to develop more individualized, effective approaches to primary prevention and treatment programs (Heap, 1991).

Statement of the Problem

According to statistics supplied by the FCCY (1992), three children per day die from abuse or neglect in the United States. In 1990, approximately 1,210 children died from abuse or neglect. This figure represents an increase of 1% over the previous year and a 38% increase since a 1985 nationwide study (FCCY, 1992). Information on the ages of the victims at the time of their deaths included that 89% were five years old or younger and 53% were under age one.

Children under age five are 20 times more likely to die from maltreatment than children five through 17 years of age (FCCY, 1992).

The incidence of child maltreatment is widespread and includes physical, sexual, emotional abuse, and parental neglect. During fiscal year 1990-91, the State of Florida received reports of 77,752 cases of physical child abuse, 23,772 cases of sexual abuse, 15,092 cases of mental/emotional abuse, 4,052 drug dependent newborns, and 76,555 cases of child neglect (FCCY, 1992). These statistics represent only a fraction of the actual number of child maltreatment cases. Many incidents are not reported and some are successfully covered up by resourceful perpetrators (FCCY, 1992). Florida Center for Children and Youth statistics indicate that up to 60% of the cases of physical, sexual, and emotional abuse to older children and teens are never reported.

Single parents are reported as being especially at risk for becoming perpetrators. In Florida, 25% of families are headed by mothers only and of these single-parent families only 30% receive any financial support from the fathers (FCCY, 1992). Additionally, 23% of Florida children live in families defined by FCCY as "poor" (i.e., under \$10,419 income per year for a family of three). Subsequently, these families are considered to be "at risk" for maltreatment

because the single caregiver must work and is not readily available to his/her children much of the time.

Studies by the FCCY (1992) also indicated that more than 85% of the perpetrators of child maltreatment are known to the child victim. Most are parents or other individuals serving as parent substitutes who have had no training in child care or effective parenting.

Some parents appear to be more inclined to inflict abuse than others. Are the perceptions and preferences (types) of these parents significantly different from those of parents who have not abused their children? This study used the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator to document the distribution of personality types and temperaments of child abusing parents who have been mandated by the court to attend parent education classes provided by the Parent Resource Center, Inc., and compare the results to the personality types of parents in regular (nonmandated) parent education classes at the same center. Data on both groups of parents were collected via the demographic information form and were collated and compared for significant differences and reported at the .05 significance level.

Need for the Study

Historically, efforts to identify personality types or characteristics of perpetrators have included clinical evaluations of individuals using instruments such as the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), the

Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), or the Rorschach (Sloan & Meier, 1983). Researchers reported results in terms of clinical characteristics of the individual's mental and emotional health rather than personal preferences and judgments (Evans, 1980; Dietrich, Berkowitz, Kadushin & McGloin, 1990).

Studies which examine data related to perpetrators suggest that child maltreatment is not limited to one small segment of the population (Roberts, 1989). Also noted is increasing evidence that most perpetrators are not part of a "lunatic fringe," as originally thought by early investigators. Instead, the majority of perpetrators are parents who are otherwise normal individuals with limited resources, skills, and knowledge for adequate parenting and who may lack the ability to cope with the stress and change required for effective parenting (Dale, Davies, Morrison, & Waters, 1986; Evans, 1980; Seagull, 1987). More information is needed about parental child abusers to help dispel the myth that only mentally deranged or poverty stricken parents are perpetrators of child maltreatment (Francis, Hughes, & Hitz, 1992; Wolfe, 1985). Surveys and personality studies of perpetrators are tools that could help identify problem areas and eliminate misconceptions regarding child abusers, thus opening the way for effective intervention strategies.

Early studies indicated that conventional measures of personal characteristics of perpetrators were cumbersome and

expensive to administer and some of those researchers suggested that utilizing scales such as the MMPI, TAT and Rorschach was also too time consuming and in some cases, impractical (Garbarino, 1986; Shorkey, 1978). Shorkey also cited reliability problems and discouraged relying only on such clinical instruments in studying the personality types of perpetrators. A review of professional literature revealed that research on perpetrators does not include basic personality typing using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). The use of this instrument may be appropriate for aiding researchers in identifying significant differences between abusive parents and nonabusive parents. Administering the MBTI would help document the personal types of parents who abuse their children and provide an indication as to whether individuals of any particular type are more likely to abuse their children. If so, then strategies to prevent child abuse or to improve intervention techniques could be tailored to better meet the needs of certain types of people.

This study focused on preferences and personality types and temperaments of abusive parents in mandated parent education as compared to those of parents who had not been deemed abusive and who voluntarily attended parent education classes. The subjects in the first group had been investigated and had been determined by investigators to be abusive or neglectful of their children. All in the first

group had been ordered by the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services or a Judge of the Circuit Court to attend parenting classes as a result of the investigation. Some children may have been placed temporarily with relatives or in foster homes and some parents may have lost custody of their children permanently. All were hoping to reunite their families by demonstrating to the court their willingness to cooperate and learn more effective ways of parenting.

Documenting the personality types of these perpetrators allowed comparison to a second, similar group of parents at the same center who had voluntarily participated in parent education classes. Significant differences between the two groups in the distribution of individual types among the 16 possible Myers-Briggs types were noted.

Rationale for the Study

Personality type is related to how people adjust to change, function in everyday life, and react to stress (Kroeger & Thuesen, 1989; Milner & Wimberley, 1980). Each individual is a product of both heredity and life experience/environment. Personality refers to the ways in which individuals differ from one another and the distinctive patterns of behavior that characterize each person's adaptation to the situations of his or her life. Also, personality influences how people's thoughts and actions interact with--and shape--the conditions of their

lives (Allport, 1961; Bandura, 1963; Goldsmith, 1983; Mischel, 1986; Moran & Eckenrode, 1992).

Personality consists of traits that are major factors in influencing individual behavior. They are described as underlying constructs, qualities, or processes that are present in each person. These identifiable qualities or properties are responsible for observable behavior (McCarthy, 1990; Mischel, 1986). Early theorists described personality traits as mental structures which account for and explain individual responses to environment (Allport, 1961). Other basic studies on personality traits include the definition of surface traits which are characterized by observable behavior (e.g., integrity, honesty, dependability, altruism, tidiness, obstinacy, lability, intuition and curiosity) and source traits that are basic constitutional or environmental factors (e.g., emotionality, ego strength, dominance or neuroticism) which affect individual behavior and decision making (Cattell, 1965).

Carl Jung devised a typology in which he grouped people into extroverts and introverts according to their preferences when dealing with stress and/or solving problems. Individuals differ in the degree to which they prefer either quality and usually are not totally in either category. Jung subsequently constructed a method which allowed preferences to be measured and studied (Myers & McCaulley, 1992).

Jung theorized that human behavior and personality are determined by a "play of opposites" in which personal history/experience, purpose, and goals play a part (Mischel, 1986). He described four basic ways of experiencing (contacting) the world: sensing, intuition, feeling, and thinking. Myers and McCaulley (1992) stated that Jung's theory provides an effective, powerful way for documenting observations about individual styles of information gathering/processing and decision making.

According to Myers and McCaulley (1992), much seemingly random variation in behavior is actually quite orderly and consistent when viewed as differences in the way individuals use their perception and judgment. If an individual could expect specific differences in specific people then he/she might be able to understand and/or cope with the people and these differences more constructively. Based on their interpretations of Jungian theory, Myers and her associates developed an instrument, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, which would measure variations of personal preferences on four scales and define 16 basic "types" of individuals (Keirsey & Bates, 1984; Kroeger & Thuesen, 1989; Myers & McCaulley, 1992). Further, the researchers determined through extensive study and norming of the instrument with a wide range of individuals that certain percentages of the general population fell into the 16 categories. This created a basis for comparing various groups of people,

using the norms to determine whether there were any trends or significant differences between the observed groups and the population as a whole (Myers & McCaulley, 1992).

The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate and compare personality types and temperaments as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) of parents who had abused their children and were mandated by the court to attend parent education classes to the personality types and temperaments of parents who voluntarily attended separate non-mandated parent education classes. Classes were mandated for abusive parents by the Florida Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services (DHRS) and/or by a Judge of the Florida Circuit Court, Ninth Judicial District.

In addition to the MBTI, parents completed a demographic form which included questions regarding ethnic background, income levels, age, marital status, and number/ages of children. An analysis of the results yielded a profile of parents mandated to parent education classes as compared to parents in voluntary parent education classes at the same center.

Research Questions

Sixteen primary research questions were addressed in this study:

1. Does the distribution of personality types, as measured by the MBTI, differ significantly between a group

of abusive parents who are mandated to attend parent education classes and a group of parents who voluntarily attend parent education classes at the same center?

2. Is there a significant difference in responses on the MBTI Extravert/Introvert Scale between parents who abuse their children and are mandated to parent education classes and parents who voluntarily attend classes at the same center?

3. Is there a significant difference in responses on the MBTI Sensing/Intuitive Scale between parents who abuse their children and are mandated to parent education classes and parents who voluntarily attend classes at the same center?

4. Is there a significant difference in responses on the MBTI Thinking/Feeling Scale between parents who abuse their children and are mandated to parent education classes and parents who voluntarily attend classes at the same center?

5. Is there a significant difference in responses on the MBTI Judging/Perceiving Scale between parents who abuse their children and are mandated to parent education classes and parents who voluntarily attend classes at the same center?

6. Are there any significant differences among four temperament types (SJ, SP, NF, NT) of parents who abuse their children and are mandated to parent education classes

and parents who voluntarily attend classes at the same center?

7. Is there any significant difference between the personality types of males who abuse their children and who have been mandated to parent education classes and those who voluntarily attend classes at the same center?

8. Is there a significant difference in the responses on the MBTI E/I index between males who have abused their children and who have been mandated to attend parent education classes and males who voluntarily attend classes at the same center?

9. Is there a significant difference in the responses on the MBTI S/N index between males who have abused their children and who have been mandated to attend parent education classes and males who voluntarily attend classes at the same center?

10. Is there a significant difference in the responses on the MBTI T/F index between males who have abused their children and who have been mandated to attend parent education classes and males who voluntarily attend classes at the same center?

11. Is there a significant difference in the responses on the MBTI J/P index between males who have abused their children and who have been mandated to attend parent education classes and males who voluntarily attend classes at the same center?

12. Is there significant difference between the personality types of females who abuse their children and who have been mandated to parent education classes and those who voluntarily attend classes at the same center?

13. Is there significant difference in the responses on the MBTI E/I index between females who have abused their children and have been mandated to attend parent education classes and females who voluntarily attend classes at the same center?

14. Is there significant difference in the responses on the MBTI S/N index between females who have abused their children and have been mandated to attend parent education classes and females who voluntarily attend classes at the same center?

15. Is there significant difference in the responses on the MBTI T/F index between females who have abused their children and who have been mandated to attend parent education classes and females who voluntarily attend classes at the same center?

16. Is there significant difference in the responses on the MBTI J/P index between females who have abused their children and who have been mandated to attend parent education classes and females who voluntarily attend classes at the same center?

Definition of Terms

Abusive parent refers to a mother or father who has been judged as threatening or perpetrating nonaccidental injury to a child thus inflicting physical or mental/emotional harm. Also included in this category are those mothers and/or fathers who damage the welfare of their children with parental acts of omission or neglect. This definition includes natural, foster, adoptive, and/or step parents.

Mandated parent is an abusive parent who has been ordered to attend parent education classes by DHRS or the court in order to learn more effective ways of interacting with their children.

Nonmandated parent is one who has expressed an interest in and who has chosen to voluntarily attend parent education classes at the Parent Resource Center.

Mandate for parent education is a decree by the Florida Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services or by a Judge of the Circuit Court, 9th District, of the State of Florida that requires parents to attend a parent education course in order to enhance parenting skills.

Parent education refers to a series of six or more sessions/classes which incorporate a curriculum that provides caregivers with information and skills regarding the appropriate child rearing practices. The focus is on positive communication skills, discipline techniques, and

child development information. Parents are encouraged to practice these new skills, network with each other, and bring problems to the group for discussion.

Personality type refers to individual characteristics that determine personal preferences and judgments. Type also includes personal differences in functioning and attitudes. According to developers of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), there are 16 possible general types of people. These types are measured by individual responses to items on the MBTI which represent one of four indices: Extraversion (E) vs. Introversion (I), Sensing (S) vs. Intuition (N). Thinking (T) vs. Feeling (F), and Judging (J) vs. Perceiving (P). A subject's responses on the MBTI will result in a four letter type (one from each index) that indicates certain personal characteristics/preferences of the individual.

Temperament is generally expressed as a combination of characteristics on the SN scale with those on the TF and JP scales. The four MBTI temperaments are SJ, SP, NT and NF.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

The remainder of this study is organized into four additional chapters. A review of the professional literature regarding personality type and other characteristics of abusive parents is included in Chapter II. This chapter also includes information on environmental and relationship factors contributing to parental child

abuse. The methodology of the study and the procedures utilized are described in Chapter III. Results of the demographic data collection and the distribution of types and temperaments as defined by MBTI Form G are presented in Chapter IV. A summary, discussion of the findings, implications for working with abusive parents, and recommendations for further study are included in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Garbarino (1986, p.43) began an examination of the development of characteristics of child abusers with a quote attributed to Abraham Maslow: "If the only tool you have is a hammer, then you tend to treat every problem as if it were a nail." He described these individuals as having two problems: (1) personal deficiencies resulting from their own parents' faulty/inadequate practices or attitudes toward child rearing; and (2) isolation from emotional and social support outside the family which limits an individual's perception of his/her environment and affects the development of personal resources and judgment. Interaction with perpetrators is more effective when tailored to the needs and learning styles of the individual.

Within the last 10 years, clinicians have agreed that studies regarding the etiology of child abuse need to include characteristics of the parent, characteristics of the child and family interactional patterns, family situational information (economics, stressors, etc.), and the social/cultural context of the family (Francis, Hughes, & Hitz, 1992). Most researchers now agree that while no one factor is responsible for the occurrence of child abuse,

studies of personality characteristics of perpetrators can provide vital information regarding personal style/preferences and family structure/interactions. Such information may facilitate the development of more effective prevention programs and increase the effectiveness of treatment of perpetrators (Ayoub, Willett, & Robinson, 1992).

After 1961, when Kempe conducted a symposium at the American Academy of Pediatrics and introduced the phrase "battered child syndrome" to describe nonaccidental injuries perpetrated by parents (Radbill, 1968), the medical community could no longer ignore unexplained injuries to children. After Kempe identified many children with nonaccidental injuries in his own medical practice, he conducted a survey of his colleagues and 80 district attorneys to determine the extent of the phenomenon (Kempe, 1962). His findings indicated that many children were suffering nonaccidental injury by their parents/guardians. The extent of the harm done to children ranged from cases where little overt harm was observed to murder. Most perpetrators were identified as parents or close relatives of the injured children, which prompted Kempe and his associates to attempt to describe the attributes of these abusive individuals (Radbill, 1968). Early child abuse investigators described the parents of the victims as:

of low intelligence, possibly psychopathic or sociopathic characters. Alcoholism, sexual

promiscuity, unstable marriages, and minor criminal activities were described as common in these parents. Most were thought to be immature, impulsive, self-centered, hypersensitive, and quick to react with poorly controlled aggression. Parents had themselves been subject to some aggression from their parents in their own childhood (Kempe, Silverman, Steele, Droegemueller, & Silver, 1962, p.18).

Wolfe (1985, p.465) conducted an extensive review of the literature of the previous decade. His conclusions include the following statement:

Overall, the results indicate that studies using measures of underlying personality attributes or traits have been unable to detect any patterns associated with child abuse beyond general descriptions of displeasure in the parenting role and stress-related complaints. Studies conducted by Wright (1976); Gaines, Sandgrund, Green, and Power (1978); and Starr (1982) failed to find significant personality functioning. Only two studies (Milner & Wimberly, 1980; Spinetta, 1978), using separate instruments designed to discriminate abusive from nonabusive parents, found more reported psychological symptoms among abusers (e.g., anger, unhappiness, rigidity). Interestingly, both instruments included a majority of questions related specifically to the parenting role, which could account for these findings. Abusers did not differ on any dimension from members of other problem families (Spinetta, 1978) and did not reveal consistent or interpretable patterns in these studies.

Other research, however, suggests that child abuse was perpetrated not only by individuals with the cited characteristics but also was found among financially stable families who were well educated. The latter parents were described as having a character defect which allowed aggressive impulses to be expressed too freely. There was also some suggestion that these adults had experienced maltreatment in their families of origin (Kempe et al., 1962).

Factors in Child Abuse

Vizard (1987) identified social and cultural factors associated with the abuse of children as young parental age, a criminal record of violence (particularly in the father), prematurity and neonatal problems in the child, physical handicap or illness in the child, social isolation, overcrowding, and low income level. Azar and Rohrbeck (1986) concluded that parental aggression was often a result of complex interpersonal events including relationship with the child, parental expectations, and level of child development knowledge.

There are innumerable child abuse (especially incest and sexual abuse) victims among prostitutes (50-60%) and male sex offenders (74%). Moreover, many runaway children attempt to escape abusive situations at home and are frequently exploited on the streets. Most of these individuals ultimately have few resources and likely will repeat the cycle of abuse and neglect when they become parents having learned no positive alternatives. These individuals help maintain a conspiracy of silence which allows the abusive cycle to continue (Vizard, 1987).

Roberts (1988) described predisposing factors to child abuse stating that while no one factor is singularly responsible, all of the factors contributed to the abuse. She discussed attributes of abusive parents, citing examples of research which indicate that these individuals

were abused as children. Many abusive parents have difficulty trusting others, suffer from low self worth, and tend to resent anyone in authority.

A review of the literature shows that there are a number of factors that put parents at risk for committing child abuse. Among them are

1. Early parenthood--immature parents may have unrealistic expectations of children or may have unmet dependency needs thus making them unprepared to meet the developmental needs of their children (Garbarino, 1986).
2. Bereaved parents--some parents who have experienced a loss during pregnancy or who have lost another infant may develop relationship problems with their newborn (Ounsted, Gordon, Roberts & Milligan, 1982).
3. Psychological problems--while no consistent pattern was observed, stress, depression, and anxiety in parents can increase the likelihood of abuse (Hawton, Roberts, & Goodwin, 1985).
4. Drug and alcohol use--released inhibitions can increase the incidence of violence and substance addiction can seriously deter parental effectiveness (Mok, 1987).
5. Ill health--research from Oxford, England, showed a high prevalence of illness in abusive families. Findings included increased, often psychosomatic, health problems in abusive parents when compared to nonabusive caregivers (Lynch & Roberts, 1982).

6. Marital dysfunction--chronic relationship difficulties and family discord are frequently factors. For example, this includes father's jealousy of spouse's relationship with the child, resulting in the child being seen as a rival (Dale, Davies, Morrison, & Waters, 1986).

7. Diffuse social problem--environmental problems include lack of money, overcrowded living conditions, controlling relatives, and a single parent's significant other (Cohn & Daro, 1987; Smith, 1984).

8. Social isolation--often there is a lack of relationships outside of the home, poor quality or absent social contacts with church, clubs, friends or neighbors (Seagull, 1987).

9. Lack of bonding with child--unwanted children, difficult or different children are at great risk of abuse (Roberts, Lynch, & Golding, 1980).

When discussing attributes and attitudes of abusive/neglectful parents one must be careful to avoid stereotyping or labelling the subjects. Smith (1984) outlined the difficulties in generalizing results of previous studies of child abusers. She stated that much energy has been expended on attempts to describe and document a personality type/characteristic of child abusers. Based on her studies, she also concluded that there is no single type of abusive parent any more than adequate parents can be lumped into a single category.

Personality/Psychological/Developmental
Characteristics of Abusive Parents

Many attempts have been made to describe individuals who abuse their children. Environmental factors have been recognized as contributory but as yet, no substantial evidence of a characteristic personality type has been identified as typical of abuse perpetrators. A review of the professional literature revealed some information regarding clinical testing, surveys, and observations of parents who abuse their children.

Early reports and research described abusive parents as psychologically unbalanced or mentally ill people who have difficulty managing their lives, even without the added burden of the responsibility of child rearing. As early as the mid 1970s, researchers were concluding that while some people who maltreat their children may fit this description, most abusive/neglectful parents are people who care about their children and in many ways are just like anyone else (Justice & Justice, 1976).

Justice and Justice (1976) outlined the theories regarding abusive parents and summarize their findings in the presentation of seven models:

1. Psychodynamic model, which implies that a parent has been reared in such a way that precluded the experience of being nurtured, therefore that person cannot nurture or mother his/her own child.

2. Personality model, which is similar to the psychodynamic model but focuses more on the traits of the individual which generate negative labels.

3. Social learning model, which indicates that parents fail to learn adequate social skills to function in home or society. Lacking social skills, these individuals gain little satisfaction from their roles as parents.

4. Family structure model, which focuses on the relationships among family members and the alliances, coalitions, enmeshments, and disengagements that are formed as a result. Unhealthy alliances can create a damaging, dysfunctional family system.

5. Environmental stress model, which emphasizes the presence of external factors as causes of abuse. Such negative factors as poverty, poor education, and occupational stress are important considerations.

6. Social-psychological model, which implies that factors such as frustration and stress caused by marital disputes, too many children, unemployment, social isolation, unwanted children, and problem children can exacerbate an already difficult situation. When influence from social class and community contribute to the use of violence, parents often are not aware of effective alternatives.

7. Mental illness model, which includes such maladies as psychopathology, psychosis, and character defects in explaining the etiology of child maltreatment.

These categories include the commonly cited causes of child maltreatment by parents. Abuse may result from any of the dynamics associated with these models or combinations thereof. For the purpose of this study, the mental illness model will not be considered as significant. Parents suspected by HRS as being in need of evaluation for mental illness are referred to resources other than parent education classes. Consequently, they usually do not fall into the sample selected for this study.

A review of published works regarding characteristics of abusive parents suggests that there is a recurrence of the theme that, except for a few isolated cases in which abuse is perpetrated by psychopathic/ mentally ill parents, abusive parents may be very much like other people who must cope with multiple problems and stressful situations. If so, then there may be certain types of parents who function less effectively when dealing with adversity.

Studies using the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory have not isolated a homogeneous profile or pattern which is characteristic of child abusers (Paulson, Schweimer, and Bendel, 1976). However, the abusers indicated higher rates of family discord, authority problems, social alienation, self-alienation, amorality, ego inflation, and other "driven" elements. They also had a high potential for overactivity, emotional excitement, flight of ideas, and impulsive behavior (Evans, 1980).

Milner and Wimberley (1979) cited a number of previous studies that measured characteristics of abusive parents. Seven constructs suspected of influencing perpetrators of child abuse were examined: unhappiness, loneliness, negative concept of child and self, personal distress, rigidity, child(ren) with problems, and family/relationship problems. Of these, loneliness, rigidity, family problems, and perceived need to control, stemming from negative self-concept, were identified as most significant. While loneliness was one of the prevalent characteristics it did not prove to be as influential as the other three elements.

In their extensive review of literature and then current research, Anderson and Lauderdale (1982) identified seven characteristics of abusive parents: isolation, dependence, role reversal with their children, low self-esteem, impulsiveness, low frustration tolerance, and transgenerational dysfunction. The latter indicated that abusive parents had themselves been abused as children.

Gaines, Sandgrund, Green, and Power (1978) attempted to verify the multivariate theory of child abuse, thereby explaining it as a function of the following three factors: personality characteristics of the parents, children at risk due to preexisting parental deviancy, and environmental stress. Parents were described as suffering from authority related conflicts and excessive aggression, neuroses and, in some cases, psychosis.

Some of the original researchers of child abuse recognized that perpetrators represent a wide spectrum of emotional disorders such as might be seen in most clinical populations. The characteristics include hysteria, hysterical psychosis, obsessive-compulsive neurosis, anxiety states, depression, schizoid personality traits, schizophrenia, character neurosis, and others. These individuals ranged from mildly depressive to seriously and dangerously obsessed masochists. Researchers stated, however, that none of these disorders was overly represented in the subjects of their study. Conclusions were that sociopathy and child abuse are not closely related and that the abusers could have been anyone in the general public (Steele & Pollock, 1968).

Shorkey (1978), using data compiled from three principal sources (case records, interviews/questionnaires/checklists, and research), summarized his findings and described the characteristics of abusive parents as follows: rigid, compulsive, having feelings of inadequacy, emotionally or socially dependent, isolated, immature, impulsive, self-centered, angry, depressed, or suffering from excessive guilt. Not all abusers possessed all of these characteristics and only a small percentage were deemed to be mentally retarded or psychotic. Most showed a low tolerance for frustration and many felt powerless in their environments. No significant difference

was noted between the control group and the abusers on 10 clinical scales of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory.

The above study included data collected by the administration of the Rorschach, Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory L and K scales, the California Test of Personality, and the Thematic Apperception Test cards. Shorkey (1978), after considering the complications in administering/scoring/interpreting the tests, and that the majority of data did not portray abusing parents as severely disturbed, concluded that these measures should be avoided because the lengthy testing and scoring reliability problems reduce the likelihood that other researchers would find results statistically useful.

Shorkey (1978) also concluded that data related to psychological characteristics of child abusers were limited at the time of his study and he recommended emphasis on research that provides fundamental knowledge related to the individual, social, and situation variables involved in the problem of child abuse.

Battering parents were described by Wright (1976) as disturbed but capable of presenting an outwardly convincing picture of being normal and even highly unlikely to abuse their children. The author termed this set of traits as "sick but slick" syndrome. Although many of these parents had a history of deprivation of love and affection and had

been battered themselves some can appear to be normal or overly conscientious parents.

Wright (1976) also noted that some abusers appeared healthier in their responses to instruments based on content validity, where the social desirability of the items was more obvious. They reportedly appeared more disturbed on items based on statistical or concurrent validity where the intent of the questions was not obvious. This finding led to the supposition that abusive parents, whenever possible, portrayed themselves as healthy and unlikely to abuse their children. This tendency was attributed by the author to manifestation of defense mechanisms.

According to Evans (1980), the literature indicated that child abusing mothers are characterized by distinctive personality attributes. He cited studies which indicated that many abusers were themselves abused as children. Researchers also used a combination of data gathered by use of the MMPI, TAT, California Test of Personality subscale on Sense of Personal Worth, and the Family Concept Inventory to describe abusive mothers as anxious, less affectionate, more conflict ridden, less supportive, less intimate, and less trusting (Dietrich, Berkowitz, Kadushin, & McGloin, 1990).

Blumberg (1980) studied perpetrators of child abuse and reported that greater than seventy percent of the harm done to children under two years of age was attributable to the child's mother. A conclusion was drawn that this high

incidence of abuse was related to the fact that the mothers were more likely to be the primary caregiver of infants and toddlers. The study also discussed the personality of the mother as a function of her own experience in childhood. Negative self image, poor impulse control and role reversal are given as important factors in establishing the etiology of child abuse by mothers. Blumberg also emphasized that psychosis is rarely a factor in child abuse.

A group of abusive mothers was compared to a matched control group by researchers five years after the last reported incident of abuse in order to determine which characteristics were still evident. The abusive mothers were shown to have characteristics associated with demanding, suspicious, and assertive personalities and to be more likely to act without sufficient prior thought. The authors stated that even though the physical abuse had stopped, these parental characteristics may have adversely affected child development (Oates, Forrest, & Peacock, 1985).

Personality variables were assessed prenatally and three months following the birth of the first child of a group of 267 high-risk mothers. While no specific personality pattern or set of characteristics were found, the excellent care mothers described themselves more positively and were less suspicious and aggressive (Brunnquell, Crichton, & Egeland, 1981).

Mothers responsible for perpetrating severe abuse to children under three years of age were studied and most of them had been abused as children. Personality characteristics these mothers possessed in common were narcissism, poor self-image and self-esteem, uncontrollable hostility and aggression, rejection, denial, projection, and a strong need for mothering (Blumberg, 1974; Farley, 1990).

Sloan and Meier (1983) reported on a group of severely abusive parents whose children were in The Village of Childhelp, U.S.A. Characteristics of these parents included passive-dependency, rigid-compulsivity, identity/role crises, and displaced anger/violence. They found a high incidence of hostile-aggressive fathers coupled with passive-dependent mothers. It was speculated that some of the children's psychopathology was directly related to parental abuse.

Spinetta (1978) concluded that personality and attitudinal factors were more negative in abusive than in nonabusive mothers. The six clusters of factors used in this study were relationship to one's own parents, tendency to become upset and angry, tendency toward isolation and loneliness, unrealistic expectations of one's own children, inability to separate parental and child feelings, and fear of external threat/control.

Zimrin (1984) found that personality traits having a significant influence on behavior are formed within the

parent-child dyad. Both individuals bring these attributes into a relationship or situation and both react and change as a result. In this circumstance, the parent's or the child's characteristics may become risk factors.

Characteristics which place the parent at risk are feelings of inadequacy, narcissistic self-image, displaced anger, projection and lack of understanding of difficult children.

Abusive parents are compared to borderline patients in four specific areas in a study by Prodgers (1984). The first major "umbrella" personality characteristic was arrested emotional development. The four subcategories were poor self-image, emotional isolation, depressive loneliness, and poorly suppressed aggression. The personal history of both abusing parents as well as borderline personalities indicate maternal deprivation. Also, both had poor ego strength, a punitive superego, and used primitive ego-defenses of denial, splitting, and projection. These factors were considered significant in constructing a description of abusive parents.

Heap (1991) studied personality characteristics of abusive parents and concluded that abusive or neglectful parents display immaturity and some emotional problems. Findings indicted that the manifestations of these characteristics were seen in parental resistance to treatment/change. The prognosis for abusive parents was

more positive for those with emotional problems than for those who were immature.

No research could be found which documented the various types of personalities of perpetrators according to personal perceptions, judgments and preferences such as categorized by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). Although some parents who abused their children demonstrated emotional developmental characteristics and personalities discussed in this study, no documentation of personality for temperament by an objective, reliable instrument was found. This causes speculation as to whether there are undocumented commonalities in perception and judgment among the parents who are abusive to their children. If these commonalities do exist, it may be useful to categorize them by utilizing an instrument such as the MBTI. The distribution of subjects among the type categories could be compared to norms to determine whether some MBTI types are more prevalent among parents who abuse their children. The personality types of abusive parents could be compared to similar groups of parents who have not been determined to have abused their children, and significant differences in the distribution of types (if any) could be documented.

Other Characteristics of Abusive Parents

Dietrich, Berkowitz, Kadushin, and McGloin (1990) conducted studies to determine whether perpetrators of abuse considered their actions to be justified. Results indicated

that abusers believed themselves justified when they perceived the child to be defiant and they themselves had been under environmental stress. The subjects generally regarded their actions as less justified if they had lost their temper and/or had experienced emotional distress.

Significant differences in abusive and nonabusive parental awareness were found in studies done by Newberger and Cook (1983) when they surveyed subjects from both urban and rural settings and compared responses to matched control groups. The issues addressed by the interview were

1. Parental conceptions of the child as a person influence development in subjectivity (how the child thinks and feels) and personality (how the child is perceived and what is an ideal child).

2. Conceptions of child rearing rules include reasons and methods for discipline, or authority, and reasons and methods for resolving conflict.

3. Conceptions of interpersonal responsibility and connection in the parental role included (a) meaning of communication and trust, (b) defining, assessing, and meeting needs, and (c) learning and evaluating parenting.

The Newberger and Cook (1983) study resulted in significantly lower scores for both the urban and the rural subjects than their respective control groups. The authors cautioned that the results have some limitations which restricted generalization. However, they emphasized that

work of this genre permits insight into parental/personal competence regarding experiences, thoughts, and behavior.

Bousha and Twentyman (1984) compared observations of mothers with a history of child abuse/maltreatment with a control group and noted significant differences between the groups. Dysfunctional mothers demonstrated significantly more negative regard for the children and higher rates of aggression.

Researchers described inadequate mothers as unable to perceive and integrate their own feelings about themselves, others, and their environments (Brunnquell, Crichton, & Egeland, 1981). In constructing an interview with these mothers, the authors included the following: subject's reactions, feelings and perceptions of day-to-day tasks; attitudes toward infant feeding, changing diapers, crying spells, and inability to calm the baby. They found that high risk mothers were likely to be young, lacking in understanding and awareness of both the infant and their relationships to the infant. These mothers also demonstrated negative reactions to their pregnancies evidenced by increased anxiety, hostility, and suspicion followed the birth of the child.

Authors (Oates, Forrest, & Peacock, 1985) concluded that a study done on abusive mothers (five and one half years after the initial abuse) showed no significant difference from the control group with regard to marital,

housing, financial problems, or physical health.

Researchers noted significant differences in the following areas: abuse group mothers were less likely to have been reared by natural parents, they had more negative feelings toward their fathers, were more likely to have received help for emotional disorders, had higher expectations of their children, perceived more personality problems in their children, and were more likely to possess assertive/demanding or suspicious personality traits.

Early researchers found that abusive mothers were reported to have more negative attitudes toward self. They saw themselves as less important, worthwhile, popular, useful, and cared for than the control mothers. These perceptions were described as contributing to a less affectionate, close, trusting, and a more nonsupportive, conflict ridden family (Evans, 1976).

While a history of abuse has been found more frequently among parents who had abusive behavior and attitudes toward their children, many who were maltreated as children did not become abusers. Conversely, many parents who did not report experiencing abuse as children have been found to have developed abusive patterns and attitudes. One explanation for these findings offered by researchers was that the non-repeaters were more likely to have had at least one caregiver who provided positive attitudes, support and love

or a spouse/significant other who was emotionally supportive (Kaufman & Ziegler, 1987).

Rosen (1979) reported that women who abused their children valued conformity and benevolence less and authority over others more than did the nonabusive subjects. The abusive group also seemed to derive little satisfaction from nurturant or social role fulfilling behaviors, and experienced considerable frustration related to their power needs.

Crittenden (1988) identified characteristics of dysfunctional, abusive, and/or neglectful parents as being reactive instead of proactive, crisis oriented, having little control (except coercion) over family situations, having absent or unrealistic expectations of their children, and are either emotionally aggressive or withdrawn from their children.

Parents/caregivers who perceive themselves as having little or no control over their children tend to be more coercive than other parents and are more likely to describe their children as being difficult. These parents are also put at high risk for abusing their children (Bugental, Blue, & Cruzcosa, 1989; Dietrich, Berkowitz, Kadushin, & McGloin, 1990).

Studies show that some parents who interpret their children's problems as criticisms of themselves lash out at the children in anger. These parents fail to provide

empathy, support, or encouragement to their offspring because of inappropriate expectations of themselves and the children (McCarthy, 1990). Often, parents expect a child to behave without question or mistakes. They neglect important details of instruction and do not give children opportunity for processing failures (Francis, Hughes, & Hitz, 1992).

McCarthy (1990) further stated that abusive parents tend to be undifferentiated partners who compete with each other and their children for attention and nurturance. Under sufficient stress, abusive parents may attack a child who fails to gratify their needs, thus venting frustrations and feelings of being threatened by the child's attempts at individuation and/or competency. This emotional atmosphere facilitates the development of ego deficits such as those characteristic of the borderline personality.

Egeland, Breitenbucher, and Rosenberg (1980) studied mothers who mistreated their infants, compared them with a control group, and observed that abusive mothers demonstrated more negative attitudes during mother-infant interaction during feeding and play; changing life events; and the babies' nonoptimal functioning. The researchers also noted that while the majority of stressed mothers did not abuse their infants, those who were abusive demonstrated higher anxiety, aggression, defensiveness, and lower levels of succorance. The abusive mothers were described as being

less understanding and having less awareness of the demands involved in being a parent.

A comparison of abusive parents with nonabusive parents conducted by Wolfe (1985) found relatively few differences between the groups except that abusers had little understanding of self and displayed reciprocal patterns of attitude and behavior with their children and spouses that were more aversive and less prosocial than nonabusers. Verbal aggression, slamming doors, throwing things, and the silent treatment are examples of nonphysical abuse cited by Vissing, Straus, Gelles, and Harrop (1991). These and other nonphysical assaults were characteristic of negative parental attitudes and behaviors that researchers identified in a study of parents of children with high levels of aggression, delinquency, and interpersonal problems.

Negative parental attitudes in abusive and/or neglectful families were identified by researchers as instrumental in the development of negative family interactional patterns. Parental interaction with children and other family members was significantly different than comparison groups. Abusive/neglectful parents had significantly fewer verbal and/or physical contacts with their children and those observed contacts reflected significantly more negative parental attitudes and expectations (Burgess & Conger, 1977; Oldershaw & Walters, 1989).

Browne and Saqi (1987) studied parent-child interaction and noted that abusive parents were less aware of the needs of their children and were more likely to have unrealistically high expectations of them. In their examination of abusive parental perceptions and behaviors, authors noted the increased likelihood of abuse in insecure or anxious parent-child relationships. In these unstable circumstances, parental perceptions of crises or other stressful incidents can precipitate abusive parental actions which only serve to exacerbate the situation rather than solve the problem or calm/quiet the child.

The mothers included in a study by Pharis and Leving (1991) were chosen because of their own history of abuse and their subsequent perceptions of parenting. The subjects indicated that parental anxiety and stress were significantly abated when interacting with a supportive individual to whom they could relate. Revising parental attitudes and behaviors to increase positive parent-child interventions is likely to be more efficiently done when supportive role models whose personalities are compatible are available to the parent.

Maher (1987) suggested that the lack of positive attitudes toward children and parenting when combined with a lack of knowledge/skills is likely to create an abusive environment. The author also stated that many parents have no alternative models of better practice to emulate. These

parents have not been exposed to and do not understand the importance of offering a stimulating and changing environment for the developing child. This isolation contributes to continuation of abusive attitudes and practices and reduces the likelihood of increased parental awareness of developmental issues.

Negative parental perceptions of children are manifested by physical aggression but, more often, the child is verbally assaulted. According to Vissing, Straus, Gelles and Harrop (1991), two-thirds of the children in the nation have experienced negative parental attitudes that resulted in verbal aggression. The authors included the following items in the definition of verbal aggression: insults or swearing at the child; sulking or refusing to talk; stomping out of room, house, or yard; saying something spiteful; threatening to hit or throwing something at the child; throwing, hitting, or kicking something other than the child.

Farley (1990) discussed the need for healthy attachment between parents and children and the concept of individuation within the parent-child relationship. Parents who cannot identify their needs, or who are dependent upon others for emotional well-being, are at risk for abusing their children. A child's autonomy can be severely restricted by lonely or depressed caregivers while other

children may be given no supervision or direction at all and may be completely neglected by parents.

Abusive parents are more likely to have negative self perceptions, inappropriate parenting skills, and lack flexibility in applying discipline and punishment. A comparison study was conducted using members of a parent support group and two control groups regarding the use of corporal punishment versus timeout. The support group parents who had attended several meetings showed significant difference from both controls and preferred timeout over spanking (Kelley, Grace, & Elliott, 1990).

Kropp and Haynes (1987) observed both abusive and nonabusive mothers interacting with their infants. The mothers were to identify the general emotional affect (both positive and negative) of the babies. Abusive mothers were more likely than mothers in the comparison group to misinterpret infant behavior and emotional signals and were also likely to label negative behavior as positive.

A study by Heap (1991) found abusive parents to be immature and to have some degree of emotional distress. Results of a comparison between groups demonstrated that those with impulsivity and immaturity were less likely to respond positively to intervention than those with emotional distress. Bousha and Twentyman (1984) examined mother-child interactional style and discovered that dysfunctional mothers showed significantly fewer positive perceptions and

behaviors toward their infants than did a control group. Mothers who had neglected their babies showed the lowest overall rates of interaction with the infants.

Berkowitz (1989) concluded that aversive events produce a higher level of negative response and aggression among individuals with poor impulse control when the frustration involves the nonattainment of an expected gratification. In the sample, a barrier keeping one from obtaining an attractive goal could provoke open aggression.

An analysis of child rearing practices of both abusive and nonabusive parents showed that abusive parents were more dissatisfied with their children, perceived child rearing as more difficult and less enjoyable, reported very different disciplinary approaches (more corporal punishment), promoted an isolated life style for both themselves and their children, and demonstrated more anger and conflict within the family (Trickett & Susman, 1988).

According to a study done by Ferleger, Glenwick, Gaines, and Green (1988), comparison groups of abusive and nonabusive parents indicated abusers were more likely to be single or remarried than non abusers. Researchers also postulated that the abusive group was more likely to have been abused or neglected themselves as children (Moran & Eckenrode, 1992).

An early study by Justice and Justice (1976) refuted the theory that abuse is caused by economic stress stating

that abusive parents are found in all socioeconomic groups. This research also showed that there was a significant correlation between caregiver abusive behavior and ability to adapt to changes in his/her life. The authors stated that change requires constant readjustment, keeps an individual uncentered or off balance, and affects the ability to effectively make decisions or solve problems. Distinctions were made between situational crises such as divorce, loss of job, or sickness, and maturational crises such as pregnancy, marriage, child leaving home, and retirement. Life crisis was defined as a series of stressful situational events which are compressed together and which are sometimes accompanied by maturational crisis.

These research studies have identified perceptions, attitudes, and/or personality characteristics of abusive parents and the influence of environmental change on family interpersonal dynamics. Although this information is extremely helpful in generating understanding of the abusive parent, there is little information regarding parental perceptions or judgments related to personality type that can be readily translated into practical applications for increasing effective parenting and reducing child abuse.

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator could be used with this population to identify any commonalities in perceptions/judgments and determine whether any types of personality are more common among abusers than among non-

abusers. This instrument is more reliable, easier to use, less expensive, and requires less training of the facilitators than most instruments previously utilized. Additionally, results are readily available and do not require subjective analysis (Quenk, 1985).

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

There are probably as many different definitions of personality as there are theorists who have studied it (Kroegeer & Thuesen, 1989; Lawrence, 1991; Mischel, 1986). Basically, personality is the way individuals are different from each other in their tendencies, qualities and/or dispositions. Mischel (1986) also concludes that individuals are influenced by many elements and behavior reflects the interaction of many influences both in the person and in the environment or situation. The essence of personality is due to basic differences in the way people utilize their innate perceptions and judgment (Jung, 1971).

This study focuses on personality type as defined by Carl Jung early in this century and further refined by Myers in the development of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. Jung described four basic ways of experiencing the world: sensing, intuition, feeling, and thinking. Further, he stated that people differ consistently in the degree to which they emphasize each way of experiencing (Jung, 1971; Mischel, 1986). According to Jung, an individual's personality is strongly influenced by the unconscious mind

and personal history and abnormal behaviors are an expression of that unconscious. He also stated that it is as important to include an individual's purposes and strivings which seek oneness/unity within the self as between self and the universe. He described a play of opposites in everything that happens in the human experience (Kroeger & Thuesen, 1989; Mischel, 1986; Provost, 1987; Quenk, 1985). Personality then, can be defined as the sum of one's preferences, choices, and actions based on one's perception(s) of the world (Kiersey & Bates, 1984; Lawrence, 1991).

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) was developed to make the theory of psychological types described by Carl Jung more useful, understandable, and practical in enhancing people's lives. It is designed to implement Jung's theory which postulates four separate dichotomies. The theory specifies dynamic relationships between four scales that lead to the identification of 16 possible personality types (Kroeger & Thuesen, 1998; Myers & McCaulley, 1992). In essence, Jung's theory states that behavior is based on perception and judgment (personality) of an individual and is orderly and consistent. The MBTI is designed to identify basic preferences of individuals in regard to perception and judgment and to document the effects of the preferences so they can be of practical use (Myers & McCaulley, 1992).

Development of the MBTI

The evolution of the MBTI began with a small criterion group of approximately 20 family members and friends whose type preferences seemed obvious to the authors. Items from this initial validation were arranged into a set of scales which became Form A of the MBTI. Form B was a different arrangement of the same items. The author developed Form C items by intercorrelating them on groups of subjects. A question having a high validity for one index was excluded if it also had high validity for another.

Internal consistency analyses of Forms A and B revealed that responses differed in popularity. To allow for this and to negate the effect of omissions the author weighted the items. In 1947, Form C incorporated item weighting which allowed better differentiation of individual scores near the middle of the scale. The lower limit to retain items was a prediction rate of .60.

In 1956, the MBTI began a period of development that would prepare it for use as a research instrument. In 1962 over 200 new items, including word-pair questions were submitted to a small group of people of known type who were familiar with the instrument. Items that survived this process were then given to 120 men and women who had taken Form C. After analysis, the more valid items were appended to Form C to create Form D. Items were evaluated by sex and type for validity.

The resulting instruments were Forms E and F which were identical except that Form F included unscored experimental items. Items were weighted and a tie-breaking formula was used to eliminate scores of zero. Form E was phased out in the early 1970s and Form F became the standard instrument.

In the mid 1970s a new form of the MBTI was standardized to ensure that cultural changes had not decreased the value of some items. Another purpose of the restandardization was to determine the age at which school children could be administered the MBTI. Item-test correlation were validated for younger ages, several items were eliminated from the previous form, and others were modified or added to complete Form G.

Myers and McCaulley (1992) report correlation of the MBTI scores with other scales: California Psychological Inventory; Adjective Check List; Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory; Comrey Personality Scales; Edwards Personality Preference Survey; Emotions Profile Index; Eysenck Personality Questionnaires; Maudsley Personality Inventory; FIRO-B; Jungian Type Survey; Omnibus Personality Inventory; Personality Research Inventory; Stein Self-Description Questionnaire; Bown Self-Report Inventory; Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire; State-Trait Anxiety Inventory; Study of Values; Rodeach Dogmatism Scale; Opinion, Attitude, and Interest Scales; Kuder Occupational Interest Survey; Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory; Brown-

Holtzman Survey of Study Habits; Kolb Learning Style Inventory; Science Research Temperament Scale; Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal; Conflict Management; Harbaugh (W)holistic Scales; Internal-External Locus of Control and Intolerance of Ambiguity. By comparison the integrity of the MBTI scales was reinforced and significantly correlated ($p < .05$) to the corresponding instrument(s) (Myers & McCaulley, 1992).

Norming has been done on thousands of individuals representing various segments of the population in all parts of the country. Administration of various forms of the instrument to these individuals confirmed the reproducibility and internal consistency of the MBTI Form G and split half reliability is reported as being from .70 to .80 (Aiken, 1982).

According to Myers and McCaulley (1992), the MBTI differs from other personality instruments as follows:

1. It is designed to implement a theory (Jung).
2. The theory postulates dichotomies which results in sometimes unusual properties.
3. There are specific dynamic relationships between the scales which lead to the specific descriptions and characteristics of the 16 types (Appendix A).
4. The type descriptions/theory continue throughout life.

5. The scope of application is broad because the scales are concerned with basic functions of perception and judgment that are related to almost every behavior.

Personality Types

The principal objective of the MBTI is to present forced choice items that will result in the identification of individual preferences on four scales. Questions are presented in this format because type theory postulates dichotomies. The items, therefore, present choices between the poles of the same continuum as shown in the following:

1. Extraversion (E) vs. Introversion (I)--Pertains to attitudes or individual preference as to whether to direct perception/judgment mainly on the outer world (E) or on the inner world of ideas (I).

2. Sensing (S) vs. Intuitive (N)--Asks which kind of perception is preferred? Only that which can be perceived by use of the five senses (S) or that perceived by the less obvious process of intuition which focuses on meanings, relationships and possibilities (N).

3. Thinking (T) vs. Feeling (F)--Addresses how does an individual arrives at judgments, conclusions, makes decisions. Is it primarily by logical processing, thinking (T) or by applying personal values and social values, feeling (F)?

4. Judgment (J) vs. Perceiving (P)--Describes how an individual chooses to deal with the outer world.

Individuals use the thinking/feeling process (J) and prefer to organize their lives in orderly, logical fashion or the sensing/intuitive process (P) which is more flexible, imaginative and relaxed. (Sample items are in Appendix A.)

The preference on each index is independent of each of the other three indices. Combinations of choices from each index result in 16 types consisting of four letters each.

Keirsey and Bates (1984, p. 27) examined these eight factors further and identified combinations of the S/N index with the T/N and J/P indices to form four temperaments which they described as "those (characteristics) which place a signature or thumbprint on each of one's actions, making it recognizably one's own." Greek mythology characterized them as having been commissioned by Zeus to make humans more like Gods. The four are Apollo (to give the spirit), Dionysus (to teach job), Prometheus (to give science), and Epimetheus (to teach duty).

Briefly, the Dionysian temperament (SP) includes those people who live for the moment. They are impulsive, do not like to be bound or obligated, and enjoy action. Those in this category are sometimes described as exciting, cheerful, and light-hearted but easily bored with the status quo. Not easily defeated, they survive setbacks, and develop extraordinary endurance.

Epimetheans (SJ) value a sense of belonging and are likely to want responsibility and identity in a social

hierarchy. Tending to be pessimistic, they prepare for the worst and are realistic about error and shortages. They have a strong sense of duty to family, work, and community. SJs usually present with a well developed sense of tradition and have a strong sense of right and wrong.

Prometheans (NT) are the most self-critical of all the temperaments and are more likely to strive for knowledge and perfection. Worried about failure, the NT is usually more intolerant of mistakes. This person expects more from self than others and sometimes assumes that others cannot comprehend fully what is going on and seeks power over them. NTs have difficulty being idle or relaxing and are constantly exploring ideas and developing new concepts. They focus on the future and what might be.

Apollonians (NF) are imaginative, resourceful and view the world optimistically. Seeking self-actualization, they tend to wander both spiritually and physically looking for resources and opportunity to add significance to life. Usually enthusiastic, these individuals can motivate others to more peaceful, whole, and significant existence. The NF is not satisfied to accept only what is visible and pursues relationships and spiritual values (Kiersey & Bates, 1984).

The intent of the scales is not to measure traits or characteristics, but to reflect a habitual choice or preference. Everyone uses both poles of each of the indices but responds first or most often with the preferred function

or attitude. The letters (E, I, S, N, T, F, J, and P) indicate the direction of the preference while the strength is measured numerically. Characteristics of the 16 MBTI types are outlined in Appendix A.

Practical Applications

In practical use, the MBTI describes an individual's preferred method of functioning, decision making, and perceptions of the world. Almost every human experience involves either perception or judgment and can describe a broad range of human activity. Research has demonstrated that similar individuals score similarly on the scales. Some practical uses of the results of the MBTI include

1. Development of teaching methods to motivate the different types of student.
2. Helping individuals who work/live together understand and accept their differences.
3. Guiding individuals in making life choices.
4. Boosting self esteem/worth by learning to accept self without applying the values of other people.
5. Motivating individuals to contribute to the good of the group.
6. Analyzing the preferred style of communicating and relating to others.
7. Understanding personal expectations and extend tolerance levels.

A type or temperament distribution table is the basic mode of presenting data on groups. The MBTI type table consists of more than just descriptive information and is itself evidence of construct validity. For example, in examining type tables of groups of people in particular circumstances or occupations, there may be more of certain types than predicted by theory. These observations contribute to construct validity. Studies using the MBTI have been conducted using many groups of people who have vocations or interests in common such as educators, medical personnel, writers, college students, clergy, engineers, architects, sociologists, psychologists, and many others. In each group, the distribution of individual types among the 16 possibilities is noted and compared to the distribution of types in the population. Trends or similarities among individuals/groups are noted (Sherman & Sherman, 1979).

MBTI Normative Data

Theoretically, norms for the distribution of type would be divided equally among the 16 personality types with 6.25% in each. However, after administering the instrument across the nation to 15,791 males and 16,880 females of various ages between March 1978 and December 1982, researchers determined that the types are not evenly distributed. The MBTI Form G norms for males and females of each type are listed below.

Table 1
Distribution of Myers-Briggs Types

	MALES	FEMALES
ISTJ	15.45%	9.77%
ISFJ	4.42	10.30
INFJ	2.36	4.77
INTJ	7.28	4.00
ISTP	6.07	2.67
ISFP	3.00	4.27
INFP	5.51	6.59
INTP	7.05	3.20
ESTP	5.90	2.78
ESFP	3.12	5.73
ENFP	5.38	9.80
ENTP	6.86	4.11
ESTJ	14.01	10.07
ESFJ	4.39	10.66
ENFJ	2.74	6.38
ENTJ	6.93	5.17

Chi Square analyses comparing distribution among the 16 MBTI types and temperaments, both at the .05 confidence level, identified significant deviations from the comparison group. In the study, subjects in the sample of mandated parents were compared to the subjects in the nonmandated sample to determine whether any of the 16 types or the four temperaments were over/under represented. The individual type and temperament were reported along with demographic data to give a profile of parents in the study.

Because the MBTI is easily administered and self scored, results are immediately available and personality characteristics and/or temperaments of respondents are readily determined, thus facilitating practical applications of findings. The availability and relatively low cost of the materials makes them even more suitable for widespread

use in personality studies. This instrument can be administered to individuals or to groups and is relatively nonthreatening to respondents (Kroeger & Thuesen, 1989; Lawrence, 1991; Provost, 1987).

The MBTI offers a unique way of viewing an individual's perceptual field by categorizing personality into eight bipolar factors which when combined, result in the 16 types and/or four temperaments already described. As a result, studies of the personality characteristics of groups of people with commonalities (i.e., occupation, gender, or school performance) have been possible.

Results of the MBTI administration in this study identify commonalities and provide information about the abusive sample that can be utilized in adapting prevention programs, modifying intervention techniques, and developing strategies to effectively communicate with people who might be at risk for perpetrating abuse. The results can also be used to guide the development of more effective parent education curriculum.

Summary

Maltreatment of children is a serious, nationwide problem that is largely perpetrated by parents and other individuals known to their victims. Research shows that each year the majority of abusive injuries to children are perpetrated by their parents. Subsequently, studies of abusers have focused on parental characteristics, attitudes

and personality types in attempts to identify trends and common traits. Clinical studies, surveys, and observations have revealed information regarding perpetrator personality, attitudes, contributing environmental factors, and relationships.

Most previously utilized personality studies have proven to be expensive and time consuming, yet they have not specifically identified any specific types of individuals who are likely to become perpetrators. Assessment of personality types/temperaments of parental perpetrators with a more easily administered, objective, standardized instrument is more practical and reliable and can identify commonalities among these parents. Research cited in this study dispels the myth that perpetrators are deranged individuals who are economically disadvantaged, but further study is needed to determine whether there are any identifiable personality types among individuals who are likely to be abusive to their children (Blumberg, 1974; Dale & Davies, 1986; Dietrich, Berkowitz, Kadushin, & McGloin, 1990; Evans, 1980; Kiersey & Bates, 1984; Sloan & Meier, 1983; Spinetta, 1978; Wolfe, 1985; Zimrin, 1984).

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is a relatively inexpensive tool which is readily available, quickly scored, and easily interpreted. It lends itself to practical application and has been used extensively as a valid, reliable tool to type individuals in certain vocations and

life circumstances. Because it is primarily utilized to identify preferences, judgment style, and personality characteristics among other groups of people with commonalities, it is possible to document trends or identifiable traits/types among parents who abuse their children. This information could then be used as a guide for the development of more effective prevention and intervention strategies.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Research has shown that more than 80% of all child abuse is perpetrated by parents or parent substitutes (Ayoub, Willett, & Robinson, 1992; Browne & Saqi, 1987; Daro, 1988). Several studies document the general characteristics of these parents and while some environmental commonalities have been found, no personality characteristics or temperaments have consistently been identified as typical of child abusers. Additionally, none of the traditionally used personality typing instruments has proven to be suitable for widespread use. To date, studies examining the personalities or temperaments of parental abusers in hope of identifying and describing precursors to abuse are those that have relied on expensive, subjective clinical measures. No studies using an objective, standardized instrument such as the MBTI have been documented in the literature (Blumberg, 1974; Dale & Davies, 1986; Dietrich, Berkowitz, Kadushin, & McGloin, 1990; Evans, 1980; Kiersey & Bates, 1984; Sloan & Meier, 1983; Spinetta, 1978; Wolfe, 1985; Zimrin, 1984).

Identifying the MBTI personality characteristics and temperaments of a group of abusive parents would allow

comparisons with norms for the population established by Myers, Briggs, and others, and could also facilitate comparison with a similar group of parents not deemed abusive. Differences in the distributions might indicate any types or temperaments more prevalent among the group of child abusers.

The development and increased effectiveness of customized child abuse prevention/intervention programs could decrease demand on public resources and ultimately result in many major positive changes in American society.

Research Design

This was a descriptive study that compared the MBTI profiles of 154 parents who were known to have abused their children and who were mandated to attend parent education classes to 168 parents not deemed to have been abusive who voluntarily attend parent education classes. All subjects were participants in a parent education program sponsored by the Parent Resource Center, Inc. Both groups received similar instruction by regular contract teachers and participants in both groups volunteered to participate in this study.

The parents known to have maltreated their children were mandated by the court or HRS to attend parent education classes. The comparison group consisted of parents who had independently enrolled and were voluntarily attending classes and had not been identified as abusive parents. The

distribution of 16 MBTI types and four temperaments among the sample were compared to the distribution of types and temperaments among the comparison group. Additionally, demographics of the groups were compared and reported.

Population and Sample

Population

The population for this study consisted of parents who resided in Orange or Seminole County, Florida and who attended parent education classes provided by the Parent Resource Center, Inc. (PRC) in those counties. Approximately 700 parents were referred to these classes during the period of 1990-1992.

Orange County and Seminole County are adjacent to each other in Central Florida. They are located slightly east of the midpoint between the Gulf and Atlantic coasts. The principal city in Orange County is Orlando and in Seminole County, Sanford. Both counties are in the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services (HRS), District Seven.

As of 1990, Orange County, Florida had a total population of 692,256 which included 170,287 children between the ages of birth and 18. Seminole County had a population of 294,117 including 76,111 children under 18 years of age. Both are among the fastest growing counties in the state in terms of population (FCCY, 1992).

According to a 1991 report by the Florida Center for Children and Youth, Orange and Seminole counties

respectively reported 7,918 and 1,647 cases of child abuse investigated in the fiscal year 1990-1991. Child neglect cases numbered 11,380 and 3,248 respectively. FCCY 1992 records indicate that 80% of nonaccidental injury to children was perpetrated by parents or other caregivers.

According to the Florida Center for Children and Youth (1992), the number of Orange and Seminole County cases of child maltreatment investigated and closed in fiscal year 1990-1991 is outlined in Table 2. These data represent the total number of founded reports in each county in a calendar year.

General information regarding family types, ethnic makeup, income levels, educational background of residents in Orange and Seminole counties is presented in Tables 2 - 6.

Table 2
Child Protective Investigation Reports Closed

	Abuse	Neglect	Total
Orange County	7,918	11,380	19,298
Seminole County	1,647	2,248	3,895

Table 3 includes information from the 1990 U.S. Census report indicating the ethnic/racial composition of the total population of Orange and Seminole counties.

Table 3
Ethnic/Racial Background by County

	Orange	Seminole
Caucasian	539,061	253,621
Afro-American	103,092	24,314
Amerind/Aleut	2,036	803
Asian/Pacific Is.	13,994	4,843
Hispanic (any race)	64,946	18,606
Other	19,308	3,948

Table 4 presents the total population over 17 years of age in Orange (515,904) and Seminole (215,057) Counties, and the highest level of education completed. The majority of adults in both counties have completed high school and a large number have attended college. The educational levels achieved by individuals in the sample are reported by group.

Table 4
Educational Levels Attained by Adults

	Orange	Seminole
< ninth grade	31,606	9,605
9th - 12th grade	76,974	25,876
High School/GED	154,106	57,291
College, no degree	116,091	52,920
Associate degree	38,904	17,604
Bachelor's degree	71,189	36,953
Graduate/Professional	27,034	14,808

The general distribution of 1990 income for families in Orange and Seminole Counties is provided in Table 5. The income levels of individuals in the sample are reported to

determine whether incomes in the sample are similar to the comparison group.

Table 5
Annual Income for Families in 1990

	Orange	Seminole
< 10,000	12,602	4,045
10,000 - 19,999	27,425	9,081
20,000 - 29,999	32,411	12,671
30,000 - 39,999	29,335	13,310
40,000 - 49,000	23,575	11,447
> 50,000	49,250	28,678

Information about family structure, heads of household, number and ages of children in Orange and Seminole county families is shown in Table 6. While the majority of families were headed by married couples, many are headed by single parents, either a mother or a father. Families in the sample were compared to those in the companion group.

The Parent Resource Center

The Parent Resource Center in Orange County was established in 1976 as a non-profit organization by the collaborative efforts of Valencia Community College and volunteers who were members of Junior Sorosis of Orlando. This nationally recognized, award winning program presently provides a network of services including the parent education component that consists of a series of six classes conducted by a trained masters' level instructor. Parenting classes were offered at the center and included mandated

classes for abusive parents and voluntary classes for other parents.

Table 6
Family Type and Ages of Children

	Orange	Seminole
Married couple		
B - 5	40,909	36,461
6 - 11	34,897	18,119
12 - 14	16,397	8,898
15 - 17	15,354	8,633
Single male		
B - 5	2,010	501
6 - 11	2,034	587
12 - 14	903	313
15 - 17	1,022	423
Single female		
B - 5	8,362	2,711
6 - 11	10,785	3,646
12 - 14	4,784	1,726
15 - 17	5,246	2,326

Reporting of Child Abuse

Reports of suspected child maltreatment are made to an HRS worker answering a telephone reporting hotline in Tallahassee, Florida. Anyone may report abuse or neglect but most professionals and child care workers are mandated to report or face criminal charges.

If sufficient evidence is perceived to be present to warrant an investigation of abuse or neglect the telephone worker refers the case to a local HRS caseworker. The

caseworker has the legal authority and responsibility to conduct the investigation. Cases are sometimes handled by a succession of single intake workers who all have contact on a case. The supervisor then assigns a counselor to compile all the information and make a determination of the validity of the report and plan for disposition of the case.

When a case is considered valid or founded, HRS makes a plan for intervention. Workers are required to intervene to support, maintain, and strengthen family ties and may ask for the voluntary cooperation of the parents after which the family is referred for counseling and/or the parent must attend parenting classes. According to FCCY (1992), removal of the child from home is a last resort and only occurs in 4% of the cases.

The Department of HRS can pursue court action when the family's voluntary cooperation is not obtained. HRS workers may present testimony and ask a Circuit Court Judge to adjudicate the child as dependent. This legal determination gives the state the authority to mandate Protective Supervision of a family or place a child in HRS custody. If a family is under HRS Protective Supervision the child remains in the home, and a case worker is assigned to supervise the home situation. The family may be required to seek counseling and caregivers must attend parent education classes. When a child is removed from the home, the HRS Child Welfare Unit places the child with relatives or in a

foster home and files a written plan for the parents to work toward the return of their child(ren). The plan often includes counseling and parent education, but not all abusive parents are mandated to The Parent Resource Center parent education classes. In some cases, authorities require family members to seek counseling, access community resources, and/or make necessary adjustments in living arrangements before children can be returned to the home. Parents usually do not regain custody of their children until conditions of the mandate have been met and the case worker approves the reunification of the family. Parent education classes for all individuals in this study were provided by the Parent Resource Center.

Sample

The sample for this study consisted of 322 parents, 154 of whom were mandated by a judge of the Circuit Court, Ninth District, or by the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services to attend the parent education classes at the Parent Resource Center in Orange or Seminole county. An additional 168 parents who voluntarily attended parenting classes at the PRC served as a comparison group. Parents were assigned to groups as they called the center for classes. Usually these classes were limited to 15-20 people. Both groups of parents attended a series of six classes which utilized the same curriculum.

To arrange the data collection for this comparison, the investigator obtained a list of both the mandated and the nonmandated classes offered at the PRC during the year. The investigator then contacted each class instructor, arranged to meet the classes and obtained written consent from each parent before including him/her in the study. Parents were informed that every precaution would be taken to protect their identities. Therefore, both the demographic data collection form and the MBTI were completed anonymously. Participation in the study was voluntary and each participant signed a consent form (Appendix B).

The demographic data form was completed by participants prior to the administration of the MBTI (Form G). Data collected included gender, age, number of children, estimated annual family income, occupation of parent, last level of school completed, and ethnic background/race (Appendix C). The ages of both groups were statistically compared via t test at the .05 level, and results were provided in the final report of the study.

The comparison group for the study consists of 168 parents who voluntarily attended parent education classes at the Parent Resource Center. The groups were of relatively equal size and participation in both was voluntary.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were evaluated in this study.

1. There is no significant difference in the distribution of personality types as measured by the MBTI between the mandated parents (Group 1) and the nonmandated parents (Group 2).
2. There is no significant difference between the two groups in the responses on the Extrovert/Introvert index of the MBTI.
3. There is no significance difference between the two groups in the responses on the Sensing/Intuitive index of the MBTI.
4. There is no significant difference between the two groups in the responses on the Thinking/Feeling index of the MBTI.
5. There is no significant difference between the two groups in the responses on the Judging/Perceiving index of the MBTI.
6. There is no significant difference between the two groups in the distribution of subjects among the four temperaments (SP, SJ, NT, and NF).
7. There is no significant difference between the two groups in the distribution of males among the MBTI types.
8. There is no significant difference between the two groups in the distribution of males on the E/I index.
9. There is no significant difference between the two groups in the distribution of males on the S/N index.

10. There is no significant difference between the two groups in the distribution of males on the T/F index.

11. There is no significant difference between the two groups in the distribution of males on the J/P index.

12. There is no significant difference between the two groups in the distribution of females among the MBTI types.

13. There is no significant difference between the two groups in the distribution of females on the E/I index.

14. There is no significant difference between the two groups in the distribution of females on the S/N index.

15. There is no significant difference between the two groups in the distribution of females on the T/F index.

16. There is no significant difference between the two groups in the distribution of females on the J/P index.

The Instrument

The instrument used to measure personality type and personality temperament in this study was the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Form G, Self-Scorable. The present form of the MBTI differs from other personality instruments in that it is designed to implement a theory which postulates four separate dichotomies. The theory specifies dynamic relationships between four scales that lead to the identification of 16 possible types. These types are descriptive of a model of development that encompasses the lifespan and are determined by responses to a series of questions designed to describe preferences based on

perception and judgment (Kroeger & Thuesen, 1989). When scored, the resultant letters indicate the direction of one's preference while the strength of the preference is measured numerically (Lawrence, 1991; Myers & McCaulley, 1992).

The instrument is designed to force a choice by offering a series of 94 questions with only two possible options as answers. Preferences are indicated by marking the answer document in either the "A" or the "B" box for each item. The results give strong evidence of the subject's preferences and perspectives of self and environment. Sample items from MBTI Form G are included in Appendix A.

The series of items in the MBTI offers respondents the choice between two options and their choices are recorded in pencil on a bubble score sheet. The subjects are assured that there are no right or wrong answers and they should record the choice that best describes themselves. When scored according to directions printed on the answer sheet, the preferences indicated by respondents result in a personality type code consisting of four letters. This code is representative of one of 16 possible types in the population. The distribution of the types of the parents in the mandated classes were compared to the distribution of types in the nonmandated classes.

When questions were answered, scoring was done by tearing the perforated strips along either side of the answer sheet and carefully separating the parts of the form. The eight columns on the answer sheet represent the eight possible individual scores (E,I,S,N,T,F,J, & P). The columns of numbers were added and the sum was written in the box at the bottom of each column. Some items are weighted and count more than others and the T/F scale has separate columns for female and male responses (males are indicated by shaded columns) on the answer sheet. The scorer compared the totals for each index and chose the letter represented by the higher number. When done correctly, the results show a four letter type which contains one letter from each of the four indices.

The four letter type that resulted from scoring the MBTI was interpreted using personality charts prepared by the authors of the MBTI (See Appendix A). General characteristics of subjects fell into one of the 16 general categories. For example: An individual whose type is ENTP is described as quick, ingenious, good at many things, stimulating company, alert and outspoken, may argue for fun on either side of a question, and is resourceful in solving new and challenging problems, but may neglect routine assignments. Apt to turn to one new interest after another, the ENTP is skillful in finding logical reasons for what they want (Kroeger & Thuesen, 1989).

Studies using the MBTI have been conducted using many groups of people who have vocations or interest in common such as: educators, engineers, high school students, clergy, medical personnel, writers, college students, architects, sociologists, psychologists, and many others. In each group the distribution of individual types among the 16 categories was noted and compared to the distribution of types in the population. Trends or similarities among individuals within the groups were noted (Sherman & Sherman, 1979). Significant differences in the distribution of subjects among the four temperaments and 16 MBTI types were determined by Chi Square test of significance (Vaillant & Vaillant, 1985). Significant differences were noted in relation to the types they represented.

Research Procedures

This study was conducted by administering the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Self-Scoring, Form G, to two groups of parents. The first consisted of 154 parents who were deemed abusive to their children and who were mandated by HRS or a judge of the Circuit Court, Ninth District, to attend parenting classes at the Parent Resource Center, Inc. The second group was made up of 168 parents who voluntarily attended parent education classes and who were not identified as having abused their children. All parents registered in advance for the classes by contacting the

Parent Resource Center and paying the registration fee (\$20.00 per person).

Permission to conduct the study at the PRC was obtained via a personal visit by the principal investigator to the Executive Director of the Parent Resource Center who presented the concept to the Board of Directors for approval. The instructors of the targeted parent education classes were contacted via telephone by the Assistant Director of the PRC and the investigator to obtain their cooperation in conducting the research.

The parent education course consists of two-hour sessions held in a classroom at the Parent Resource Center or at some other designated site once a week for six consecutive weeks. The instructor(s) for the six-week series of classes were trained to teach parent education and needed only a minimum of instruction in how to administer the MBTI and the demographic questionnaire. Prior to the first class, a short meeting was scheduled with the instructor to ensure cooperation, explain the purpose of the study, and review instructions regarding the materials to be used.

Data Collection and Analyses

After receiving permission to conduct the study, obtaining the schedule of classes for Orange and Seminole Counties, and briefing the instructors, the research materials were distributed to the class instructor(s). The

research packets for each class included Informed Consent/Permission forms, Demographic Information forms, the MBTI, Form G, Self-Scoring answer documents.

During the first class, subjects were asked to sign a release form (Appendix B) and were told that their participation in the study was strictly voluntary. Subjects, assured of anonymity, were instructed not to write their names on the instruments or answer sheets. After gaining the cooperation of the class, the instructor requested that subjects complete the demographic data form (Appendix C) and the 94 item, Self-Scoring Form G of the MBTI. This required approximately thirty minutes to one hour for completion. The subjects did not score the instruments, which, instead, were collected and returned to the researcher for processing.

Data from the 322 subjects were sorted according to groups, the 16 types, MBTI indices, four temperaments, and demographic data. Percentages of the totals were calculated for each type and the two groups were compared. Chi Square analyses determined whether the observed frequency in the sample of abusive parents was statistically different from the expected frequencies as determined by the nonmandated parent group.

Additionally, each index (E/I, S/N, T/F, and J/P) was examined separately via Chi Square analyses to determine whether the subjects' responses were significantly different

from those in the nonmandated group. The scores for males and for females in each group were also compared on all indices to determine differences. Combinations of characteristics (four temperaments) and their distribution among the groups were compared via Chi Square. A t-test was used to calculate whether there was a significant difference in the ages of the two groups. All statistical calculations utilized a .05 level of significance.

Demographic data were compiled, sorted, and reported as descriptive of the sample. Comparisons between the mandated group and the nonmandated group and results are reported in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSES

This study examined personality types and temperaments of two groups of parents who attended parent education classes at the Parent Resource Center, Inc. in Orange and Seminole Counties, Florida. The instrument utilized in the study to document personality type was the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. Group 1 consists of 154 individuals who were mandated to attend parent education classes by the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services or by a judge of the Ninth District Court of Florida and Group 2 is made up of 168 parents who voluntarily attend classes at the same center.

This chapter presents results of a statistical comparison of MBTI personality types and temperaments between the mandated parents and the nonmandated parent groups. The study includes demographics of the two groups, comparisons on each scale of the MBTI, gender comparisons, group comparison on all variables, and other findings related to the hypotheses.

Sample Demographics

Three hundred twenty two (322) parents participated in the study. Two people refused to participate for personal

reasons and eight people did not participate because either they had never learned to read or were non-English speaking and were not fluent enough to read/write English.

Gender, marital status, educational level, ethnic origin, number of children, income level, and age were the demographic variables selected for analysis. Frequency distributions (with percentages) were computed for each demographic variable. Table 7 presents the frequency and percentage of each demographic category.

Table 7
Demographic Characteristics of the Participants*

Category	Group 1 (%)	Group 2 (%)	%
Gender:			
Male	80(51.9)	60(35.7)	43.5
Female	74(48.1)	108(64.3)	56.5
Marital Status:			
Married	52(33.8)	84(50.0)	42.2
Single	46(30.0)	35(20.8)	25.2
Divorced	27(17.5)	23(13.8)	15.5
Separated	13(8.4)	12(7.1)	7.8
Other	6(3.9)	2(1.2)	2.5
Missing	10(6.4)	12(7.1)	6.8
Education Level:			
< or + 8th	6(3.9)	2(1.2)	2.4
9th	9(5.8)	3(1.8)	3.7
10th	10(6.6)	8(4.8)	5.6
11th	8(5.3)	6(3.6)	4.4
GED or 12th	51(33.2)	64(38.3)	35.7
College 1	13(8.4)	23(13.6)	11.5
2	12(7.8)	20(11.7)	10.0
3	1(0.6)	6(3.6)	2.2
BA/BS 4	6(3.9)	16(9.5)	6.9
Grad	2(1.2)	3(1.8)	1.7
Missing	36(23.3)	17(10.1)	15.9

Table 7 (Continued)

Ethnic Background:

Caucasian	86(55.8)	104(61.9)	59.0
Afro-American	32(20.8)	29(17.3)	18.9
Hispanic	13(8.4)	6(3.6)	5.9
Asian-American	4(2.6)	3(1.8)	2.3
Amerind	7(4.5)	8(4.8)	4.6
Other	1(0.6)	4(2.4)	1.6
Missing	11(7.3)	14(8.2)	7.7

of Children:

0	3(1.9)	3(1.8)	1.9
1	36(23.4)	41(24.4)	23.9
2	42(27.3)	56(33.3)	30.4
3	36(23.4)	18(10.7)	16.8
4	14(9.0)	9(5.3)	7.1
5	5(3.2)	3(1.8)	2.5
6	2(1.3)	3(1.8)	1.6
8	0(0.0)	1(0.6)	0.3
Missing	16(10.5)	34(20.3)	15.5

Income Level:

0-10,000	48(31.2)	23(13.7)	22.6
10,100-20,000	45(29.2)	30(17.9)	23.2
20,100-30,000	28(18.2)	42(25.0)	21.6
30,100-40,000	11(7.1)	23(13.7)	10.5
40,100-50,000	7(4.5)	15(8.9)	6.7
>50,000	4(2.6)	28(16.7)	9.9
Missing	11(7.2)	7(4.1)	5.5

* some subjects did not supply all information requested

The largest number of parents was in the voluntary group (168), and most of those were female (64.3%). The mandated group (154) was more evenly split among males (51.9%) and females (48.1%). Married individuals made up only one-third of Group 1 while one-half of Group 2 was married. Single or unattached parents accounted for more than half (55.9%) of the mandated group and less than half (41.7%) of the voluntary group.

The education level of the mandated group included 21.6% who had never completed high school while only 11.4% of the voluntary group did not graduate from high school. The mean grade level of the mandated group was 11.9, the mode and the median were both 12.0. Approximately one-third (33.2%) of Group 2 completed high school but did not attend college. Of the mandated group, almost twenty-two percent (21.9%) attended college but only approximately five percent (5.1%) graduated, and slightly over one percent (1.2%) did post graduate work. More than forty percent (40.2%) of the voluntary group attended college with over eleven percent (11.3%) of them graduating and nearly two percent (1.8%) of them doing post graduate studies.

The ethnic composition of Group 1 included a majority of Caucasians (55.8%) and Group 2 had 61.9%. Minority groups among the mandated parents were Afro-American (20.8%), Hispanic (8.4%), Asian-American (2.6%), Amerind (4.5%), and Other (0.6%). The Group 2 minority parents were Afro-American (17.3%), Hispanic (3.6%), Asian-American (1.8%), Amerind (4.8%), and Other (2.4%).

There were three people (0.95%) in each group that had no children of their own. The parents who had only one child made up 23.4% of the mandated group and 24.4% of the voluntary group. Those parents with two children comprised 27.3% of the mandated group and 33.3% of the voluntary group. The Group 1 parents who had three children made up

23.4% of that group and 10.7% of Group 2. Parents with four or more children in the mandated and voluntary groups accounted for 13.5% and 8.9% of their groups respectively. The average number of children per parent was 2.3 for the mandated group and 2.1 for the nonmandated group.

The mean, mode, and median income for the mandated parents were \$20,000-30,000. The nonmandated group mean, median and mode was \$30,000-40,000. Parents with income of \$10,000 or less accounted for 31.2% of the mandated Group (1) and 13.7% of the nonmandated Group (2). Those between \$10,100 and \$20,000 accounted for 29.2% of the mandated parents (Group 1) and 17.9% of the individuals who voluntarily attended classes (Group 2). The mandated group had 18.2% in the \$20,100 to \$30,000 bracket while the nonmandated group had 25%. Only 14.2% of the mandated parents had incomes over \$30,000 while 39.3% of the voluntary parents were in that bracket.

Of the parents who reported their ages, the range was from 16 to 87. The mean age was 32.587, the median was 32.000, and the mode was 30.000. The distribution of ages in the two groups was compared via a t-test at the .05 level of significance.

Table 8 presents an age comparison between the two groups, illustrating number of cases (n), mean (m), standard deviation (SD). There was no significant difference in ages of the two groups.

Table 8

Comparative Ages of Mandated and Nonmandated Parents*

Group	n	M	SD	Pooled t value	deg. free.	2-tail prob.
1	151	31.768	8.497	-1.70	301	.091
2	152	33.401	8.264			

* 19 missing cases

Testing of HypothesesHypothesis 1

The first hypothesis states that there is no statistically significant difference between the distribution of personality types as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator between the mandated (Group 1) and the nonmandated (Group 2) parents. The expected frequency of subjects among the 16 personality types was determined by examining the 168 participants in the nonmandated group.

The largest group (29 Parents) in the distribution of subjects among the 16 types is ISTJ in the mandated group (Group 1) with 18.8%. Other types in the mandated group with a larger n than the comparison group are ESTJ (11.0%), ESTP (5.8%), ISTP (8.4%) and INFP (5.2%).

While Table 9 shows the distribution of individual types, Table 10 represents the statistical comparison (Chi Square) of the two groups across the 16 Myers-Briggs personality types. The Chi Square comparison of Groups 1

and 2 across the Myers-Briggs types with fifteen degrees of freedom demonstrated a significance of .57834. The study failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the distribution of MBTI types among the two groups.

Table 9
Distribution of Group 1 MBTI Personality Types

Group 1			Group 2		
Type	n	%	Type	n	%
ESTJ	17	11.0	ESTJ	13	7.7
ESTP	9	5.8	ESTP	8	4.8
ESFJ	17	11.0	ESFJ	20	11.9
ESFP	8	5.2	ESFP	10	6.0
ENTJ	6	3.9	ENTJ	12	7.1
ENTP	3	1.9	ENTP	5	3.0
ENFJ	3	1.9	ENFJ	7	4.2
ENFP	8	5.2	ENFP	10	6.0
ISTJ	29	18.8	ISTJ	20	11.9
ISTP	13	8.4	ISTP	11	6.5
ISFJ	14	9.1	ISFJ	16	9.5
ISFP	9	5.8	ISFP	9	5.4
INTJ	3	1.9	INTJ	9	5.4
INTP	5	3.2	INTP	6	3.6
INFJ	2	1.3	INFJ	7	4.2
INFP	8	5.2	INFP	5	3.0

% = percentage of each group

Table 10
MBTI Type Comparison of Groups

Group	n	X ²	DF	p
Group 1	154(47.8)	13.31037	15	.57834
Group 2	168(52.2)			

$p < .05$ level of significance

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the groups on the Extrovert/Introvert (E/I) index of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. The mandated group of parents was compared statistically to the nonmandated group to determine any significant difference between them.

Table 11
Comparison of Groups on the E/I MBTI Index

Type	Group 1	Group 2	X ²	DF	p
E	72 (46.8)	85 (50.6)	.47469	1	.49084
I	82 (53.2)	83 (49.4)			

$p < .05$ level of significance

Nearly 47% of the parents in Group 1 are Extroverts (E) and 53% are Introverts (I). Group 2 has 50.6% Extroverts and 49.4% Introverts. At the .05 level the significance is .49084. The study failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference in the distribution of subjects in the two groups on the E/I index.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the mandated and nonmandated groups on the Sensing/Intuitive (S/N) index of the MBTI. Table 12 shows the results of a statistical comparison between the two groups on this index.

Table 12
Comparison of Groups on the S/N MBTI Index

Type	Group 1	Group 2	X ²	DF	p
S	116(75.3)	107(63.7)	5.10763	1	.02382
N	38(24.7)	61(36.3)			

$p < .05$ level of significance

Group 1 has three times as many subjects who are Sensing (S) as who are Intuitive (N). The comparison group (2) shows nearly 64% of subjects are Sensing and 36% are Intuitive. The statistical significance at the .05 level is .02382. The null hypothesis that there is no difference between groups on the S/N index is rejected.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant difference between Groups 1 and 2 on the Thinking/Feeling (T/F) MBTI index.

Table 13
Comparison of Groups on the T/F MBTI Index

Type	Group 1	Group 2	X ²	DF	p
T	86(55.8)	85(50.6)	.88890	1	.34578
F	68(44.2)	83(49.4)			

$p < .05$ level of significance

Table 13 shows that in the mandated group (1) almost 56% of the subjects are Thinking (T) and 44% are Feeling

(F). The comparison group (2) was almost evenly split with approximately 50% in each group. The statistical significance is .34578 which failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the groups on the T/F index.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis five stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups on the Judging/Perceiving index of the MBTI.

Table 14
Comparison of Groups on the J/P MBTI Index

Type	Group 1	Group 2	X2	DF	p
J	92(59.7)	102(60.7)	.03183	1	.85840
P	62(40.3)	66(39.3)			

$p < .05$ level of significance

This table shows the distribution of subjects on the Judging/Perceiving index of the MBTI. Group 1 is divided with almost 60% in the Judging category and 40% in the Perceiving category. Group 2 is very similar with nearly 61% Sensing and 39% Perceiving. The statistical significance is a .85840 which failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the groups on the J/P index.

Hypothesis 6

The sixth hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the mandated and the nonmandated groups in the distribution of subjects among the four temperaments (SP, SJ, NT, and NF).

Table 15
Distribution of Temperaments Among Groups

Temperament	Group 1	Group 2	X ²	DF	p
SP	40(26.5)	36(21.4)	9.00168	3	.03121
SJ	75(48.5)	71(42.3)			
NT	18(11.5)	32(19.0)			
NF	21(13.5)	29(17.3)			

X² significance at 7.815 with 3 degrees of freedom at .05 level

A statistical comparison using Chi Square with three degrees of freedom at a .05 level of significance resulted in a Chi Square value of 9.002 which is a significant difference. The null hypothesis that there is no difference between groups in the distribution of subjects among the four temperaments is rejected.

Hypothesis 7

The seventh hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the distribution of males among the MBTI types in the mandated and nonmandated groups. There are 140 men in the study with 80 in the mandated group (1) and 60 in the nonmandated group (2).

Table 16
Distribution of Males Among the MBTI Personality Types

Group 1			Group 2		
Type	n	%	Type	n	%
ESTJ	12	15.0	ESTJ	2	3.3
ESTP	9	11.3	ESTP	2	3.3
ESFJ	7	8.8	ESFJ	4	6.7
ESFP	3	3.8	ESFP	2	3.3
ENTJ	5	6.3	ENTJ	5	8.3
ENTP	2	2.5	ENTP	3	5.0
ENFJ	1	1.3	ENFJ	2	3.3
ENFP	1	1.3	ENFP	2	3.3
ISTJ	13	16.3	ISTJ	12	20.0
ISTP	8	10.0	ISTP	7	11.7
ISFJ	7	8.8	ISFJ	4	6.7
ISFP	4	5.0	ISFP	1	1.7
INTJ	1	1.3	INTJ	5	8.3
INTP	5	6.3	INTP	4	6.7
INFJ	0	0.0	INFJ	3	5.0
INFP	2	2.5	INFP	2	3.3

% = percentage of respective groups

The largest number of male subjects of a single type is ISTJ which accounts for 16.3% of the mandated group and 20.0% of the nonmandated group. The mandated male group also had 15% ESTJ subjects while the second largest category in the nonmandated group is ISTP with 11.7%.

Table 17
MBTI Type Comparison of Males

Group	n	X ²	DF	p
1	80 (57.1)	19.52622	15	.19087
2	60 (42.9)			

$p < .05$ level of significance

The Chi Square comparison of MBTI males in Group 1 with those in Group 2 at fifteen degrees of freedom showed a significance of .19087. The study failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference in the distribution of males in the two groups among the MBTI types.

Hypothesis 8

The eighth hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the mandated group and the nonmandated group in the distribution of males on the E/I index.

Table 18
Comparison of Males on the E/I Index

Type	Group 1	Group 2	X ²	DF	p
E	40(50.0)	22(36.7)	2.47037	1	.11601
I	40(50.0)	38(63.3)			

$p < .05$ level of significance

The Chi Square comparison with one degree of freedom shows the mandated group (1) evenly divided between Extroverts and Introverts at 50% each. The nonmandated (2) males are divided with nearly 37% in the Extrovert group and 63% in the Introvert group. The study failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the groups in the distribution of males on the E/I index.

Hypothesis 9

Hypothesis nine stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the mandated and the non mandated groups in the distribution of males on the S/N index.

Table 19
Comparison of Males on the S/N Index

Type	Group 1	Group 2	X2	DF	p
S	63 (78.0)	33 (55.0)	8.97373	1	.00274
N	17 (21.3)	27 (45.0)			

$p < .05$ level of significance

The Chi Square comparison with one degree of freedom shows a significance of .00274. Sensing males account for 78% and Intuitive males 21% of the total of Group 1. The Group 2 distribution was more even with 55% Sensing and 45% Intuitive males. The null hypothesis that there is no difference between the groups in the distribution of males on the S/N index is rejected.

Hypothesis 10

The tenth hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the mandated and the nonmandated groups in the distribution of males on the T/F index.

The two groups of males are both divided with 70% who prefer Thinking and 30.0% who prefer Feeling. With one

degree of freedom the significance is 1.0000. The study failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the groups in the distribution of males on the T/F index.

Table 20
Comparison of Males on the T/F Index

Type	Group 1	Group 2	X ²	DF	p
T	56(70.0)	42(70.0)	0.00000	1	1.0000
F	24(30.0)	12(30.0)			

$p < .05$ level of significance

Hypothesis 11

The eleventh hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the mandated and the nonmandated groups in the distribution of males on the J/P index.

Table 21
Comparison of Males on the J/P Index

Type	Group 1	Group 2	X ²	DF	p
J	47(58.8)	35(58.3)	.00245	1	.96050
P	33(41.3)	25(41.7)			

$p < .05$ level of significance

Chi Square comparison with one degree of freedom showed the two groups to be similar in their preferences on the J/P

index. Group 1 was divided with nearly 59% Judging and 41% Perceiving and Group 2 had slightly more than 58% Judging and almost 42% Perceiving. The study failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference between groups in the distribution of males on the J/P index.

Hypothesis 12

The twelfth hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the mandated and the nonmandated groups in the distribution of females among the MBTI types. There are 182 females in the study with 74 in the mandated and 108 in the nonmandated groups.

Table 22
Distribution of Females Among the MBTI Personality Types

Group 1			Group 2		
Type	n	%	Type	n	%
ESTJ	5	6.8	ESTJ	11	10.2
ESTP	0	0.0	ESTP	6	5.6
ESFJ	10	13.5	ESFJ	16	14.8
ESFP	5	6.8	ESFP	8	7.4
ENTJ	1	1.4	ENTJ	7	6.5
ENTP	1	1.4	ENTP	2	1.9
ENFJ	2	2.7	ENFJ	5	4.6
ENFP	7	9.5	ENFP	8	7.4
ISTJ	16	21.6	ISTJ	8	7.4
ISTP	5	6.8	ISTP	4	3.7
ISFJ	7	9.5	ISFJ	12	11.1
ISFP	5	6.8	ISFP	8	7.4
INTJ	2	2.7	INTJ	4	3.7
INTP	0	0.0	INTP	2	1.9
INFJ	2	2.7	INFJ	4	3.7
INFP	6	8.1	INFP	3	2.8

% = percentage of respective groups

The largest number of female subjects was in ISTJ with 21.6% of the mandated group. The mandated group also had 13.5% ESFJs while the nonmandated group had 14.8% ESFJs and 11.1% ISFJs.

Table 23
MBTI Type Comparison of Females

Group	n	X ²	DF	p
1	74(40.7)	19.97739	15	.17280
2	108(59.3)			

$p < .05$ level of significance

The Chi Square comparison of MBTI females in Group 1 with those in Group 2 at 15 degrees of freedom showed a significance of .17280. The study failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference in the distribution of females in the two groups among the MBTI types.

Hypothesis 13

The thirteenth hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the mandated and the nonmandated groups in the distribution of females on the E/I index.

The mandated group has 43% Extroverts and almost 57% Introverts while the nonmandated groups has 58% Extroverts and nearly 42% Introverts. A statistical comparison using Chi Square analysis with one degree of freedom resulted in significance of .04530. The null hypothesis that there is

no difference between groups in the distribution of females on the E/I index is rejected.

Table 24
Comparison of Females on the E/I Index

Type	Group 1	Group 2	X ²	DF	p
E	32 (43.2)	63 (58.3)	4.00745	1	.04530
I	42 (56.8)	45 (41.7)			

$p < .05$ level of significance

Hypothesis 14

The fourteenth hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the mandated and the nonmandated groups in the distribution of females on the S/N index.

Table 25
Comparison of Females on the S/N Index

Type	Group 1	Group 2	X ²	DF	p
S	53 (71.6)	74 (68.5)	.20052	1	.65430
N	21 (28.4)	34 (31.5)			

$p < .05$ level of significance

The mandated group has approximately 72% Sensing and 28% Intuitive females and the nonmandated group is similar with approximately 69% Sensing and 31% Intuitive. The Chi Square comparison with one degree of freedom showed a

significance of .65430. The Chi Square comparison failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the two groups in the distribution of females on the S/N index.

Hypothesis 15

The fifteenth hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the mandated and the nonmandated groups in the distribution of females on the T/F index.

Table 26
Comparison of Females on the T/F Index

Type	Group 1	Group 2	X ²	DF	p
T	30 (40.5)	43 (39.8)	0.00963	1	.92183
F	44 (59.5)	65 (60.2)			

$p < .05$ level of significance

The groups were similar with 40% of Group 1 and approximately 40% of Group 2 who preferred Thinking and approximately 60% of each preferring Feeling. The Chi Square comparison with one degree of freedom shows a significance of .92183 and failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference between groups in the distribution of females on the T/F index.

Hypothesis 16

The sixteenth hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant difference between the mandated

and the nonmandated groups in the distribution of females on the J/P index.

Table 27
Comparison of Females on the J/P Index

Type	Group 1	Group 2	X ²	DF	p
J	45(60.8)	67(62.0)	.028	1	.86735
P	29(39.2)	41(38.0)			

$p < .05$ level of significance

The groups were similar on this index with approximately 61% of Group 1 and 62% of Group 2 preferring Judging and 39% of Group 1 and 38% of Group 2 Perceiving. The Chi Square comparison with 1 degree of freedom showed a significance of .86735 and failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the two groups in the distribution of females on the J/P index.

Summary

Results of Chi Square analyses indicate that overall there were no differences between the mandated and the nonmandated groups in the distribution of Myers-Briggs types. When examined separately by gender however, the E/I index among females and S/N among males showed significant differences at the .05 level. The two groups of females differed significantly on the E/I index in that the mandated group had fewer Extroverts and more Introverts than the nonmandated group. Mandated females were divided with 43%

predominately Extrovert and 57% Introvert while the nonmandated comparison group had 58% Extroverts and only 42% Introverts.

Comparisons of males on the S/N index showed the 79% in the mandated group and 55% in the nonmandated group preferred Sensing. Intuitive males accounted for only 21% of the mandated group but 45% of the nonmandated group. There were significantly more Sensing males and fewer Intuitive males in the mandated group.

Using Chi Square analysis to compare temperaments of the two groups showed that 75% of the mandated group (Group 1) and 64% of the nonmandated group (Group 2) preferred either SP or SJ. SPs accounted for 26% of Group 1 and 22% of Group 2 while SJs were 40% of Group 1 and 42% of Group 2. A total of 25% of mandated subjects preferred Intuitive with Thinking (12% NT) or Feeling (13% NF). Of nonmandated subjects, 19% preferred NT and 17% NF for a total of 36% who combined Intuitive with Thinking or Feeling. The Chi Square value of 9.0 with three degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level.

The groups were similar in other variables except educational levels and income. The nonmandated group achieved an average grade level of 11.9 while the average parent in the nonmandated group had attended college. The nonmandated parents averaged \$10,000 a year higher income levels. A t-test showed no significant difference in ages

between the groups and the ethnic makeup of the two groups was similar.

According to the study, significantly more Sensing males and more Introvert females are represented in the mandated group (Group 1). The nonmandated group (Group 2) is slightly more well educated and has an average income higher than the mandated group. These findings and their implications will be discussed in Chapter V. Of the 16 null hypotheses in the study, four (3, 6, 9 and 13) were rejected.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to compare the Myers-Briggs personality types and temperaments of parents who had abused their children and had been mandated to attend parent education classes at the Parent Resource Center in Orange and/or Seminole County, Florida to a similar group of parents who voluntarily attended parent education classes at the same center. A total of 322 parents participated in the study with 154 in the mandated group (Group 1) and 168 in the nonmandated group (Group 2).

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator was administered to both groups accompanied by a demographic questionnaire which documented parents' gender, marital status, ages, ethnic origin, educational levels, income bracket, and number of children in the family. Most of the participants in the study were female, who comprised 48.1% of the mandated and 64.3% of the nonmandated groups. Married subjects comprised half of the nonmandated parent group but only one-third of the mandated parent group. Approximately two-thirds of the mandated parents were single, divorced, separated or other (widowed, spouse absent for various reasons). Approximately

16% of the total number of subjects did not graduate from high school and more than 32% had at least attended college for one year.

Of those supplying information regarding ethnicity, the majority of subjects were Caucasian (59%); Afro-Americans accounted for 18.9%; Hispanics, 5.9%; Asian-Americans, 2.3%; Amerinds, 4.6%; and Other 1.6%. Most families had one, two, or three children but larger families with four, five, or six children were represented in both groups. The average family size was 2.3 children in the mandated group and 2.1 for the nonmandated group. Families in the mandated group averaged \$20,000-30,000 annual income while the nonmandated group averaged \$30,000-40,000 per year.

The first five hypotheses were related to comparisons of the two groups on distribution of subjects among the 16 MBTI types and on each of the four indices (E/I, S/N, T/F, and J/P). The sixth hypothesis was a comparison of the two groups on the four temperaments (SP, SJ, NT, and NF). The next five were concerned with comparisons of males in the groups and the final five with comparisons of females in the groups on these five measures.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were made regarding the hypotheses tested in this study. The first hypothesis stated there would be no statistically significant ($p < .05$) difference in the distribution of MBTI personality types

between a group of parents who had abused their children and who had been mandated by the court or by HRS to attend parent education classes at the Parent Resource Center and a group of parents who voluntarily attended parent education classes at the same center. Each of the possible 16 Myers-Briggs personality types in the two groups was compared via Chi Square analysis with no significant difference noted. This failed to reject hypothesis one.

The second hypothesis stated that there would be no statistically significant ($p < .05$) difference between the mandated and the nonmandated parents in their distribution on the E/I index of the MBTI. Extroversion (E) is correlated (-.77 to -.40) to a sense of comfort in ones environment shown in measures of self-regard, self-acceptance, self-confidence, autonomy, social adjustment, personal adjustment, and ego strength. Also these individuals are described as quick to respond to energy in the environment and score high on sociability scales such as inclusion, gregariousness, outgoing, and liking people. Introversion (I) correlates to a relative lack of comfort in the environment such as anxiety, tension, depression, abasement, and deference. Correlation with quiet, silent, retiring, and solitary indicates an interest in privacy. These individuals tend to receive from the environment rather than act upon it. Correlation is high with scales such as reflective observation and reality distance (Myers &

McCaulley, 1992). Hypothesis two failed to reject when the two groups were statistically compared in the distribution of subjects on the E/I index.

The third hypothesis stated that there would be no statistically significant ($p < .05$) difference between the mandated and the nonmandated parents in their distribution on the S/N index of the MBTI. Sensing perception (S) denotes perception via the five senses and correlates ($-.67$ to $-.40$) to realism, practicality, conservatism, and proper/rule-bound attitude. Myers and McCaulley (1992) state that Sensing as managing reality appears in correlations with achievement, order, and self-control. As accepting reality, Sensing correlates to deference and wanted (desired) control. Intuitive perception is described as that of possibilities, patterns, symbols, abstractions, and correlates ($r.62$ to $r.40$) with flexibility, complexity, autonomy, artistic, creativity, independence, and self-actualization. Subjects in the mandated group (Group 1) exhibited a significantly higher ($p < .05$) preference for Sensing and lower preference for Intuitive perceptions than subjects in the nonmandated group (Group 2). Therefore, the third hypothesis was rejected.

The fourth hypothesis stated that there would be no statistically significant ($p < .05$) difference between the mandated group and the nonmandated group in responses on the T/F index of the MBTI. Thinking (T) is associated with

analytical, logical coolness in interpersonal relationships, and is correlated ($r = -.57$ to $r = -.40$) to masculine orientation, dominance, skepticism, assertiveness, achievement, and aggression. Feeling (F) is associated with subjective values rather than analysis or logic, reflects a concern for people and is correlated ($r = .55$ to $r = .40$) to concerns of others, nurturance, sociability, adaptability of feelings, and need to avoid unpleasant situations. Feeling is also significantly correlated with blame avoidance (Myers & McCaulley, 1992). The comparison failed to reject the fourth hypothesis in this study.

The fifth hypothesis stated that there would be no statistically significant ($p < .05$) difference between the mandated group and the nonmandated group in responses on the J/P index of the MBTI. Judging attitude is characteristically associated with decisiveness, desire for control, order, dependability, and conscientiousness. It is correlated ($r = .59$ to $r = .40$) with order, strong superego, leadership, self-control, achievement, and endurance. Perceptive attitude is associated with spontaneity, openness, adaptability, and curiosity. It correlates ($r = .57$ to $r = .40$) to complexity, flexibility, autonomy, blame avoidance, change/challenge, succorance, and imaginativeness. The two groups in this study were very similar in responses on this index therefore the comparison failed to reject the fifth hypothesis.

The sixth hypothesis stated that there would be no statistical difference ($p < .05$) between the groups in the distribution of subjects among the four temperaments. Among the temperaments, SJ was the largest category with 49% of the mandated group and 42% of the nonmandated group. These people are described by Kiersey and Bates (1984) as living a stoical ethic. Pessimistic and desiring hierarchy, they want acceptance and belonging. It is difficult for them to ask for help and they often feel obligated, responsible, and burdened. They are dedicated to established social norms and are likely to say "It is supposed to be that way because it has always been that way." They may have difficulty understanding the emotional needs of others but can be possessive about family and property. SP is the second largest category which accounts for 26% of the mandated group and 22% of the nonmandated group. Kiersey and Bates (1984) describe them as needing to be free, not bound or obligated. They tend to be impulsive and action oriented, working best in and often creating crisis. They tend to become bored with the status quo and seek adventure. They are also described as loyal and needing to live in the present more than other individuals. NT and NF are the smallest groups with NT having 12% of the mandated subjects and 19% of the nonmandated. NT loves intelligence, competence and is self-critical but can sometimes become compulsive and tense in his/her behavior. They may impose

their own personal values on those around them and can sometimes appear arrogant. NF individuals are described as needing a purpose in life and working toward self-actualization. They value uniqueness and have the ability to appear to be whatever the beholder wants them to be. As parents they are usually sensitive to the viewpoints of their children and can sometimes fall into a rescuing role thus depriving children of valuable learning experiences.

The Chi Square comparison with three degrees of freedom showed significant differences between the mandated group and the nonmandated group in the distribution of subjects among the four temperaments. The mandated parents were more SJ and SP than the nonmandated group with fewer of them NT and NF. The sixth hypothesis was rejected.

The next 10 hypotheses are gender related and examine responses made by males and by females. The seventh hypothesis stated that there would be no statistically significant difference ($p < .05$) between the mandated group and the nonmandated group in distribution of male subjects among the 16 MBTI types. Chi Square comparison with 15 degrees of freedom resulted in no significant difference between the groups in the distribution of subjects among the 16 MBTI types and failed to reject the seventh hypothesis.

The eighth hypothesis stated that there would be no statistically significant difference ($p < .05$) between males in the mandated and the nonmandated groups in their

responses on the E/I index. The comparison with one degree of freedom resulted in X^2 of 2.47 which is not significant at $p < .05$ which failed to reject the eighth hypothesis.

The ninth hypothesis stated that there would be no statistically significant difference ($p < .05$) between males in the mandated and the nonmandated groups in their responses on the S/N index. Examination of males in the mandated group showed a significantly higher ($p < .01$) percentage of responses on Sensing (S) and lower responses on Intuitive (N) than their counterparts in the nonmandated group. Therefore, the ninth hypothesis was rejected.

The tenth hypothesis stated that there would be no statistically significant difference ($p < .05$) between males in the mandated and the nonmandated groups in their responses on the T/F index. The two groups of males proved to be similar in their responses with 70% of each group preferring Thinking and 30% preferring Feeling and failed to reject the tenth hypothesis.

The eleventh hypothesis stated that there would be no statistically significant difference ($p < .05$) between males in the mandated and the nonmandated groups in their responses on the J/P index. Again, the groups were similar in their responses with approximately 58% in each group preferring Judging (J) and 42% preferring Perceptive (P) attitudes which failed to reject the eleventh hypothesis.

The twelfth hypothesis stated that there would be no statistically significant difference ($p < .05$) between the mandated and the nonmandated groups in the distribution of female subjects among the 16 MBTI types. Chi Square analysis with 15 degrees of freedom resulted in no significant difference between the groups therefore failed to reject the twelfth hypothesis.

The thirteenth hypothesis stated that there would be no statistically significant ($p < .05$) difference between females in the mandated and the nonmandated groups in their responses on the E/I index. Chi Square comparison of groups resulted in significant difference with 43.2% of mandated females and 58.3% of nonmandated females preferring Extrovert (E). Introverts accounted for 56.8% of the mandated and 41.7% of the nonmandated females. Mandated females were significantly more likely to prefer Introversion than their nonmandated counterparts therefore the thirteenth hypothesis was rejected.

The fourteenth hypothesis stated that there would be no statistically significant ($p < .05$) difference between the mandated and the nonmandated groups in the distribution of females on the S/N index. Chi Square comparison resulted in no significant difference in the two groups with 71.6% of the women in Group 1 and 68.5% of Group 2 preferring S. The fourteenth hypothesis failed to reject.

The fifteenth hypothesis stated that there would be no statistically significant ($p < .05$) difference between females in the mandated and the nonmandated groups in their responses on the T/F index. This hypothesis failed to reject because the two groups responded almost identically on these measures. The mandated group consisted on 40.5% and the nonmandated 39.8% women who preferred Thinking while 50.5% mandated and 60.2% of nonmandated women preferred Feeling which failed to reject Hypothesis 15.

The sixteenth hypothesis stated that there would be no statistically significant ($p < .05$) difference between females in the mandated and the nonmandated groups in their responses on the J/P index. The women responded similarly in both groups with 60.8% and 62.0% respectively preferring the Judging attitude. The Perceptive attitude was preferred by 39.2% of mandated and 38.0% of nonmandated women therefore failed to reject the sixteenth hypothesis.

Implications of the Study

Implications of this study include indications that certain personality temperaments may be more related to abusive behavior than others. In comparisons on some MBTI indices there were significant differences between the group of parents who were mandated to parent education classes at the Parent Resource Center and the group of parents who voluntarily attended classes at the center. Results of this study indicate that mandated females tend to be less

assertive, more introverted and introspective than those in the comparison group. Mandated males are more practical, concrete, demanding, conservative and rule-bound than males in the nonmandated group.

Studies of MBTI type and temperaments of additional groups of parents could possibly identify populations at risk for child abuse and could give important information regarding preferences, perceptions, attitudes and needs of those individuals. Each type has strengths and preferences in the development of relationships, learning styles, and behavior and it may be possible to tailor approaches to parenting education that meet specific needs of high risk populations.

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations may have affected the analyses and/or results of this study:

1. All subjects in the study attended parent education classes conducted by the Parent Resource Center in either Orange or Seminole County, Florida. No other parents were included in the study so generalizations of the findings to other populations or sites may not be appropriate.

2. The nonmandated parents who voluntarily attended classes at the Parent Resource Center may have at some time been abusive to their children. Their inclusion in the nonmandated group does not preclude the possibility that

they have been abusive. No attempt was made to assess their parenting behaviors with their children.

3. Underlying personal or environmental variables may have influenced parental responses on the MBTI and affected the results.

4. All classes and instructors were representative of the Parent Resource Center and may not be typical of other sites.

5. Since the MBTI was administered only one time to each participant, it is possible that other variables may have influenced the study.

6. Even though every precaution was taken to insure parent cooperation, it is possible that some participants did not read, understand or complete the instrument according to instructions.

Recommendations

Several recommendations can be made on the basis of this study. They include the following.

1. Examine and document MBTI temperaments further to determine whether abusive parents tend to prefer SJ and/or SP more frequently than parents in nonabusive comparison groups.

2. Compare MBTI temperaments by gender to determine whether there are significant differences between abusive males/females and males/females in nonabusive comparison groups.

3. Explore whether abusive parents' personality types/temperaments differ significantly from population norms reported by Myers and McCaulley.

4. Conduct further studies on abusive males to determine their preferences on the S/N index of the MBTI and whether their choices are significantly different from the preference of nonabusive males.

5. Conduct further studies on abusive females to determine their preference on the E/I index of the MBTI and whether significantly different from the preference of nonabusive females.

6. Conduct additional studies to compare the two groups in this study to MBTI national norms.

Child abuse continues to cause major concern in our society. Nonaccidental injury to children costs thousands of lives and creates myriad problems for victims and their families. Abuse also presents communities with tremendous dilemmas regarding the highest and best use of resources. Efforts to determine causes, identify potential perpetrators, and develop effective prevention and intervention strategies are paramount in the fight against child maltreatment.

Parents and/or their substitutes are the perpetrators of 80% of the nonaccidental harm to children in our country and should be the primary targets of prevention/intervention programs. While environmental factors play a large part in

creating abusive situations, parental temperament may also be a key element in the incidence of child abuse.

Parent education programs tailored to meet the specific personality/temperament needs of potentially abusive individuals could help prevent needless harm to thousands of children. Every child might then have the opportunity to grow and thrive in a safe, nurturing environment.

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APPENDIX A
Myers-Briggs Sample Questions
and Characteristics of Types

SAMPLE ITEMS FOR THE
MYERS-BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR - FORM G

by Katharine C. Briggs and Isabel Briggs Myers

There are no "right" and "wrong" answers to these questions. Your answers will help show how you like to look at things and how you like to go about deciding things. Knowing your own preferences and learning about other people's can help you understand where your special strengths are, what kinds of work you might enjoy, and how people with different preferences can relate to each other and be valuable to society.

Part I: Which Answer Comes Closer to Telling How You Usually Feel or Act?

4. Do you prefer to
(A) arrange dates, parties, etc., well in advance, or
(B) be free to do whatever looks like fun when the time comes?
21. Do you usually
(A) value sentiment more than logic, or
(B) value logic more than sentiment?

Part II: Which Word in Each Pair Appeals to You More?

Think about what the words mean, not how they look or sound.

39. (A) systematic
(B) casual
64. (A) quick
(B) careful

Part III: Which Answer Comes Closer to Telling How You Usually Feel or Act?

79. Are you
(A) easy to get to know, or
(B) hard to get to know?
84. When you start a big project that is due in a week, do you
(A) take time to list the separate things to be done and the order of doing them, or
(B) plunge in?

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You may change the format of these items to fit your needs, but the wording may not be altered. Please do not present these items to your readers as any kind of "mini-test," but rather as an illustrative sample of items from this instrument. We have provided these items as samples so that we may maintain control over which items appear in published media. This avoids an entire instrument appearing at once or in segments which may be pieced together to form a working instrument, protecting the validity and reliability of the test. Thank you for your cooperation. Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc., Rights & Contracts Department.

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Intuitive Types

<p>INFJ</p> <p>Succeed by perseverance, originality, and desire to do whatever is needed or wanted. Put their best efforts into their work. Quietly forceful, conscientious, concerned for others. Respected for their firm principles. Likely to be honored and followed for their clear convictions as to how best to serve the common good.</p>	<p>INTJ</p> <p>Usually have original minds and great drive for their own ideas and purposes. In fields that appeal to them, they have a fine power to organize a job and carry it through with or without help. Skeptical, critical, independent, determined, sometimes stubborn. Must learn to yield less important points in order to win the most important.</p>
<p>INFP</p> <p>Full of enthusiasms and loyalties, but seldom talk of these until they know you well. Care about learning, ideas, language, and independent projects of their own. Tend to undertake too much, then somehow get it done. Friendly, but often too absorbed in what they are doing to be sociable. Little concerned with possessions or physical surroundings.</p>	<p>INTP</p> <p>Quiet and reserved. Especially enjoy theoretical or scientific pursuits. Like solving problems with logic and analysis. Usually interested mainly in ideas, with little liking for parties or small talk. Tend to have sharply defined interests. Need careers where some strong interest can be used and useful.</p>
<p>ENFP</p> <p>Warmly enthusiastic, high-spirited, ingenious, imaginative. Able to do almost anything that interests them. Quick with a solution for any difficulty and ready to help anyone with a problem. Often rely on their ability to improvise instead of preparing in advance. Can usually find compelling reasons for whatever they want.</p>	<p>ENTP</p> <p>Quick, ingenious, good at many things. Stimulating company, alert and outspoken. May argue for fun on either side of a question. Resourceful in solving new and challenging problems, but may neglect routine assignments. Apt to turn to one new interest after another. Skillful in finding logical reasons for what they want.</p>
<p>ENFJ</p> <p>Responsive and responsible. Generally feel real concern for what others think or want, and try to handle things with due regard for the other person's feelings. Can present a proposal or lead a group discussion with ease and tact. Sociable, popular, sympathetic. Responsive to praise and criticism.</p>	<p>ENTJ</p> <p>Hearty, frank, decisive, leaders in activities. Usually good in anything that requires reasoning and intelligent talk, such as public speaking. Are usually well informed and enjoy adding to their fund of knowledge. May sometimes appear more positive and confident than their experience in an area warrants.</p>

Introverts

Extroverts

Sensing Types

Introverts

ISTJ

Serious, quiet, earn success by concentration and thoroughness. Practical, orderly, matter-of-fact, logical, realistic, and dependable. See to it that everything is well organized. Take responsibility. Make up their own minds as to what should be accomplished and work toward it steadily, regardless of protests or distractions.

ISFJ

Quiet, friendly, responsible, and conscientious. Work devotedly to meet their obligations. Lend stability to any project or group. Thorough, painstaking, accurate. Their interests are usually not technical. Can be patient with necessary details. Loyal, considerate, perceptive, concerned with how other people feel.

ISTP

Cool onlookers—quiet, reserved, observing and analyzing life with detached curiosity and unexpected flashes of original humor. Usually interested in cause and effect, how and why mechanical things work, and in organizing facts using logical principles.

ISFP

Retiring, quietly friendly, sensitive, kind, modest about their abilities. Shun disagreements, do not force their opinions or values on others. Usually do not care to lead but are often loyal followers. Often relaxed about getting things done, because they enjoy the present moment and do not want to spoil it by undue haste or exertion.

ESTP

Good at on-the-spot problem solving. Do not worry, enjoy whatever comes along. Tend to like mechanical things and sports, with friends on the side. Adaptable, tolerant, generally conservative in values. Dislike long explanations. Are best with real things that can be worked, handled, taken apart, or put together.

ESFP

Outgoing, easygoing, accepting, friendly, enjoy everything and make things more fun for others by their enjoyment. Like sports and making things happen. Know what's going on and join in eagerly. Find remembering facts easier than mastering theories. Are best in situations that need sound common sense and practical ability with people as well as with things.

Extraverts

ESTJ

Practical, realistic, matter-of-fact, with a natural head for business or mechanics. Not interested in subjects they see no use for, but can apply themselves when necessary. Like to organize and run activities. May make good administrators, especially if they remember to consider others' feelings and points of view.

ESFJ

Warm-hearted, talkative, popular, conscientious, born cooperators, active committee members. Need harmony and may be good at creating it. Always doing something nice for someone. Work best with encouragement and praise. Main interest is in things that directly and visibly affect people's lives.

APPENDIX B
Consent Form

This study is being conducted to fulfill requirements for the doctoral dissertation in the Counselor Education department of the University of Florida.

Your identity will be protected since you are not required to identify yourself as a respondent. The two questionnaires are: a short demographic form and the Myers Briggs Personality Type Inventory. Completion of these two items should not require more than 30 minutes.

Thank you for participating in this important study.

Lucy Dekle Braun, Researcher

Date

I agree to participate in the research survey. I understand that my responses are anonymous and that I will not be identified as a respondent.

Class Participant

Date

APPENDIX C
Data Collection Form

PLEASE COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING ITEMS:

1. Age_____ Sex M_____ F_____
2. Marital Status:
Married_____ Single_____ Divorced_____
Separated_____ Other_____
3. Highest Level Attained in School/College: _____
4. Number of Children: _____ Their Ages: _____
5. Ethnic Background:
Asian_____ AfroAmerican_____ Hispanic_____
Caucasian_____ AmerInd_____ Other_____
6. Total Family Income for One Year (Circle):
\$0 - \$10,000
\$10,100 - \$20,000
\$20,000 - \$30,000
\$30,100 - \$40,000
\$40,100 - \$50,000
Over \$50,000
7. Occupation: _____
8. Other people living in your home besides family members listed on this form: _____

9. Do you smoke cigarettes or cigars? Y_____ N_____

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

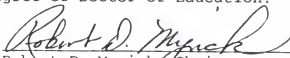
Lucy Dekle Braun, a Florida native born in Tampa, Florida, on December 11, 1937, is a divorced mother of four sons. She graduated from Taylor County High School in 1954 at sixteen years of age and obtained a Bachelor of Arts degree from Brenau College in 1958. Her biology degree enabled her to qualify for an internship in medical technology which she completed at Southern Baptist Hospital in New Orleans, Louisiana, in 1960.

She married a medical intern in 1962 and spent the next seventeen years as a Navy physician's wife and mother to her four sons. After divorce, she returned to school and obtained a Master of Arts degree in counselor education from the University of Central Florida in 1983. Since that time, she has devoted herself to family, work and school (not always necessarily in that order) and was admitted to candidacy for the Doctor of Education in counselor education in 1989. She has completed requirements for licensure in mental health counseling, marriage and family therapy, rehabilitation counseling is also a certified insurance rehabilitation specialist and a nationally certified counselor.

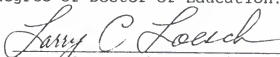
As the Client Services Coordinator for the Response Sexual Abuse Treatment program in Orlando, she supervises master's level interns; serves as director of counseling for adult survivors of sexual assault; and conducts inservice training for other agencies, hospitals and schools. Her professional accomplishments include planning and developing innovative child abuse prevention programs in Florida; presenting workshops on abuse and/or family relationships for FACD, FADAA, HRS, Florida Department of Education, Florida Department of Law Enforcement, hospitals, churches, social service agencies and schools; writing and contributing to books on child abuse; serving as consultant to media, including a Pulitzer Prize winning documentary on child abuse produced by WFTV, Channel 9, and especially prepared broadcasts for NBC radio.

Lucy has served on numerous community boards and task forces including the Florida Hospital Women's Center, Advisory Board and the Parent Resource Center, Board of Directors. She is an Adjunct Professor in the University of Central Florida, College of Education and also teaches classes in the Central Campus programs of Valencia Community College and Seminole Community College. In her "spare" time, she enjoys puzzles, scuba diving, traveling, and needlework.

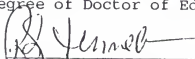
I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


Robert D. Myrick, Chair
Professor of Counselor Education

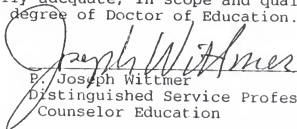
I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


Larry C. Loesch, Cochair
Professor of Counselor Education

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


Robert S. Fennell
Professor of Pharmacology and
Therapeutics

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


P. Joseph Wittmer
Distinguished Service Professor of
Counselor Education

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Education and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

April, 1994


Dean, College of Education

Dean, Graduate School